

Addressing resistance to change

An explorative study of the potential of external coaching

The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Business Administration of the University of Portsmouth.

University of Portsmouth

April 2020

Student No: UP796843

Bianca Brandes

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my family and friends for always having an open ear for thesis-related topics. Especially, I would like to thank Arndt with whom I had great discussions and a couple of hours critical reading, particularly in the last months and weeks before submission.

Academically, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors Yi-Ling, Karen, and Arjan for their support and patience throughout my studies. Furthermore, I wish to thank Daniel, the DBA programme leader, for his feedback in the earlier stages of this study and for providing guidance about the direction of the research.

Organisationally, I would like to thank my DBA peers for the exchange of experiences and thoughts that came up through our journey including the sharing of concerns and possible solutions.

Declaration

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

Final word count (main text only): 45,284

© Bianca Brandes, 2020

Bianca Brandes asserts her moral right to be identified as the author of this thesis. This copy of the thesis has been supplied on condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that its copyright rests with its author and that no quotation from the thesis and no information derived from it may be published without appropriate permission or acknowledgement.

Abstract

In recent years, research has shown that individual resistance is an obstacle to successful organisational change. Consequently, there is continuing interest in research to develop theoretically underpinned solutions on how to deal with resistance. However, while change management has been the subject of extensive research, there is a lack of research concentrating specifically on linking the involvement of external coaches with individuals who are resistant to change.

To explore the contribution of external coaches in a resistant environment, this study focuses on practising business coaches and business coach educators. This is accomplished through a qualitative research approach including 21 in-depth interviews. The study identifies bodily, behavioural, and emotional indicators to identify and deal with individual change resistance; enhances and confirms success factors in terms of specific attributes of the coaching process; and investigates training and development possibilities for external coaches in the field of resistance. However, there are also limitations to the research, such as the regional focus of the study participants in Germany.

Overall, this study demonstrates that external coaching is one of the valuable approaches in responding to individual resistance in a changing working environment. The original contribution is that in this nascent field, the research combines the fields of external coaching and change resistance to offer new insights. These include the understanding of resistance and its indicators by reassessing the positive-negative-paradigm of resistance and thereby enriching the theory of organisational change. The findings also underline the current discourse in coaching theory regarding understanding coaching as a social process and not just as a detached approach. The findings of this study are therefore likely to be of

interest to external coaches and coach trainers, as well as to others such as mentors or leaders, who face resistance in their working environment.

Table of content

Acknowledgements	i
Declaration	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of content	v
List of figures	x
List of tables	xiii
Abbreviations	xv
1 Introduction	1
1.1 The rationale for this research	1
1.2 Research aim and questions	5
1.3 Structure of this thesis	6
2 Literature review	8
2.1 Approach of the literature review	8
2.2 Resistance to individual change	13
2.2.1 The individual change process	13
2.2.2 The concept of resistance to change	19

2.2.3	Resistance during the individual change process	24
2.2.4	Contextual and individual sources of resistance	29
2.2.5	Approaches to deal with resistance.....	35
2.3	Coaching intervention and resistance to change.....	44
2.3.1	The definition and understanding of coaching	44
2.3.2	Coaching process and success factors	51
2.3.3	External coaching and resistance in empirical studies	59
2.3.4	External coaching as an approach to successfully dealing with resistance ...	61
2.4	Conceptual framing of this research	64
2.5	Development of the research questions.....	66
3	Research design	70
3.1	Research philosophy and approach	70
3.2	Research strategy	78
3.2.1	Research methodology	78
3.2.2	Data collection method.....	82
3.2.3	Time horizon, sampling design, and data access	86
3.3	Data analysis method	89

3.4	Compliance and ethical considerations	95
4	Findings and analysis	97
4.1	Participants' demographic backgrounds.....	97
4.2	Theme coding	98
4.2.1	Identification of thematic clusters	98
4.2.2	The thematic map regarding the research sub-questions.....	99
4.2.3	Identification of sub-themes.....	101
4.3	Analysis of interview responses	102
4.3.1	Summary of findings from the interviews with coaching practitioners	103
4.3.2	Resistance in the eyes of coaching practitioners.....	106
4.3.3	Identification of resistance through coaching practitioners.....	114
4.3.4	Sources of resistance stated by coaching practitioners	117
4.3.5	Factors and attributes of a successful coach-coachee relationship	123
4.3.6	Approaches of coaches to manage resistance.....	128
4.3.7	Training and development for coaches in the field of resistance	135
4.4	Findings and the conceptual framing.....	143
5	Discussion of findings	144

5.1	What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?	145
5.2	How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?	149
5.2.1	Sources and indicators	150
5.2.2	Training and development of coaches.....	157
5.3	How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?	159
5.4	What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?.....	164
5.5	Discussion and the conceptual framing	169
6	Conclusions	171
6.1	Summary of the thesis.....	171
6.2	Theoretical contributions	174
6.2.1	Contribution to the theory of organisational change	174
6.2.2	Contributions to the theory of change management.....	180
6.2.3	Contribution to the coaching theory	181
6.3	Contributions to professional practice.....	184
6.3.1	External coaches	184

6.3.2	Organisations	185
6.3.3	Educators and training providers.....	186
6.4	Limitations of the research.....	187
6.5	Implications for further research	188
7	Author’s personal and professional development	191
	References.....	194
	Appendices.....	229
	Appendix A: Ethical Approval Reference provided by the Ethical Committee	229
	Appendix B: Form UPR16	232
	Appendix C: Applied interview guide.....	233
	Appendix D: Request for interview	235
	Appendix E: Participant’s demographic background	236
	Appendix F: Data analysis—sub-codes and further refinements	237
	Appendix G: Suitability of internal and external coaches for resistant coachees	241
	Appendix H: Analysis of the training and development market.....	243
	Appendix I: Guiding principles and methods for coaches to be considered in resistance training	251

List of figures

Figure 1: Iterations between the literature review and the field research	12
Figure 2: Individual change process based on George & Jones (2001)	15
Figure 3: Resistance in the individual change process derived from George and Jones (2001)	25
Figure 4: Sources of resistance in the individual change process derived from George & Jones (2001)	30
Figure 5: Summary of approaches to deal with resistance.....	43
Figure 6: Key elements in coaching practice derived from Bennett and Bush (2013, chapter 4.1)	52
Figure 7: Condensed concept of the individual change process (as explained in 2.2.1 and 2.2.3)	62
Figure 8: Resistance to change and its involving elements	63
Figure 9: Conceptual framing of this thesis	65
Figure 10: Philosophical positioning matrix based on Guba and Lincoln (1994).....	73
Figure 11: Structure of the interview questionnaire	83
Figure 12: Example of a theme, its sub-themes, and refinements based on the theme "Understanding of resistance"	101

Figure 13: Logic of the structure of section 4.3 with regards to the themes	102
Figure 14: Findings sections sorted to research questions by their relevance.....	106
Figure 15: Classification of resistance by practitioners	107
Figure 16: Overview of the evaluation of resistance by the interviewees	111
Figure 17: Further indicators of resistance	116
Figure 18: Coaching assignments where resistance occurs.....	118
Figure 19: Ingredients for a successful coach-coachee relationship	124
Figure 20: Metaphors for the self-image of coaches.....	126
Figure 21: Tools and techniques for coaches to deal with resistance	131
Figure 22: Methods to deal with resistance trained by the interviewees.....	138
Figure 23: Integration of the research findings into the conceptual framing	143
Figure 24: Understanding of resistance to change – considered thesis sections.....	146
Figure 25: Sense making of change resistance - considered thesis sections.....	149
Figure 26: Comparison of coaching assignment contexts/ organisational sources between literature and empirical data	151
Figure 27: Comparison of individual resistance sources between literature (Bailey & Raelin, 2015; Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616) and empirical data	152

Figure 28: Responses to change resistance – considered thesis sections.....	159
Figure 29: Success factors for external coaching - considered thesis sections	165
Figure 30: Success factors for coaching in a resistance context	166
Figure 31: Influencing factors of a coach for a successful coach-coachee relationship....	168
Figure 32: Integration of the discussion into the conceptual framing	169
Figure 33: Utilising external or internal coaches to deal with resistance successfully.....	241

List of tables

Table 1: Two paradigms of resistance to change (Bareil, 2013)	22
Table 2: Approaches to deal with resistant individuals	36
Table 3: Inference modes adapted from Danermark (2002, pp. 80–81).....	75
Table 4: Research in mature, intermediate and nascent management areas (Edmondson & McManus, 2007)	79
Table 5: Research in the field of change resistance.....	81
Table 6: Exemplary development of interview questions over time.....	84
Table 7: Data analysis approach—adapted from Braun and Clark’s (2006) theory of thematic analysis	92
Table 8: High-level clustering of interview data grouped to a conceptualised map	99
Table 9: Thematic map of interview data	100
Table 10: Findings for sub-themes related to resistance	103
Table 11: Findings of sub-themes related to coaching	104
Table 12: Findings of sub-themes related to coaching resistance.....	104
Table 13: Findings of sub-themes related to training in the field of resistance	105
Table 14: Resistance in the understanding of practitioner.....	109

Table 15: Mixed evaluation of resistance by interviewees.....	113
Table 16: Indicators of resistance	115
Table 17: Individual sources of resistance	119
Table 18: Critical lessons about coping with resistance in attended trainings.....	141
Table 19: Behavioural indicators of resistance	155
Table 20: Participant approaches to deal with resistance classified in the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979).....	161
Table 21: Literature approaches to deal with resistance classified in the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979).....	162
Table 22: Participant approaches to deal with resistance to coaching itself	163
Table 23: Personal Action Plan.....	192
Table 24: Coaching associations adapted from Rauen (2017).....	244
Table 25: Overview of certified training of coaching associations	246

Abbreviations

Only abbreviations used in the main text are included.

EMCC – European Mentoring & Coaching Council

HR – Human Resources

ICF – International Coaching Federation

1 Introduction

1.1 The rationale for this research

Change has been recognised as a constant throughout the industrial developments of the last century. However, the requirements for organisations in the context of change are increasing, due to the dynamic environment which includes digitalisation and globalisation (Hoe, 2017). Such changes are reflected in the journey of a business, its stakeholders, technology, and environment (Kerber & Buono, 2005; Stragalas, 2010); hence, it is challenging to sustainably manage a company without having an emphasis on change (Merdzanovska, 2016; Vedenik & Leber, 2015). As stated by Beckhard and Harris (1977, cited in Hamner, 1978, p. 662), *“It is most difficult for a[n] ... organization to change itself, that is, for the regular structures of the organization to be the structures used to manage the change”*.

It is widely outlined in the literature that one of the major challenges in change management is the individual who is affected by the change, due to their resistance to the perceived imposition of change (Anderson & Ackerman-Anderson, 2010, pp. 167–168; Hudescu & Ilies, 2011; McKay, Nuntz, & Näswall, 2013). One explanation of why these challenges often fail is that *“the most common way of managing change resistance has been ‘resist’ resistance”* (Kulkarni, 2016).

However, an organisational change process, which is an individual and group sensory process that takes place in a social context, can impact on a positive or negative outcome, and that is the result of continuous and persistent human production and interaction in organisational environments (George & Jones, 2001). Hence, it is essential to consider the

context or organisational change at the individual level because changes in organisations are usually initiated and performed by individuals (George & Jones, 2001).

Resistance to change is defined as a pattern of organisational behaviour that individuals apply to actively reject or suppress change proposals and initiatives (Goksoy, 2017). Especially within knowledge-intensive industries, such as major consultancy firms, change resistance has a significant impact on change success (Kaiser, Kozica, Swart, & Werr, 2015). This impact is due to the fact that knowledge is bundled in individual resources and therefore leaving the company often results in loss of knowledge. Hence, individuals' commitment and motivation to perform the change, and work accordingly after the change, are mandatory to organisational success (Millar, Chen, & Waller, 2017). However, the debate continues about how organisations can deal with change resistance. For example, Seijts and Gandz (2018) indicated leader characters that are supportive of transformational change. In addition, several studies outlined the significance of well-trained change agents and leaders in successfully managing organisational change (Battilana & Casciaro, 2012; Bel, Smirnov, & Wait, 2018; Warrick, 2017). However, change resistance from an individual perspective is overlooked (Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011). While resistance remains an important obstacle to change, further research is required to explore individual factors instead of merely an organisational focus.

So far, external coaching has been used as a change intervention approach (as outlined for example by Schein, 2006, pp. 67–78, 2009, p. 71) even it has rarely been investigated regarding its contribution to dealing with resistance. However, there is a growing body of scholars that discuss how external coaches can facilitate organisations and leaders in their change initiatives (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). The main reason includes that the sustainability of change cannot be achieved without the individual support by the majority

of employees. This individual support can be achieved by coaches as they strive to understand the need for this change in relation to each individual's universe and individual empowerment at all stages of change (Beaumier, Christensen, & DeLoach, 2012; Enescu & Popescu, 2012).

An external coach is not an employee of the organisation where the coachee is employed (Moen & Federici, 2012), but rather has a contract either with this organisation—or directly with the coachee—and is only hired for the coaching assignment (Frisch, 2001). There is evidence that external coaches are being hired in order to perform change initiatives successfully because change is a fundamental focus of coaching (Bennett & Bush, 2013, chapter 9.4; Jim, 2016). In addition, the coaching market itself is increasing worldwide. This is underlined by the constant increase in sales generated by external coaching services (International Coach Federation (ICF), 2016), a trend which highlights the importance and topicality of external coaching.

Current coaching literature refers to coaching as a social process, with an emphasis on the importance of considering the social contexts of both the coach and the coachee (Shoukry & Cox, 2018). However, the social standards, norms, and attitudes of an individual—summarised as their social context—are affected by changes taking place in the individual's environment, and such changes often lead to the resistance of individuals (Lewin & Cartwright, 1951). Hence, discussions about resistance should be included as part of coaching research because change resistance occurs within such social processes (Lewin & Cartwright, 1951; Shoukry & Cox, 2018). Therefore, this study explores the contribution of external coaches to resistance.

After establishing the relevance of the research objective based on coaching theory, the literature in this field is analysed with the following result: While organisational change

management has been the subject of extensive research, this is not the case with regard to external coaching in combination with individual change, especially in terms of change resistance. The latter has received less attention from academia although it has attracted considerable practitioner interest. As a result, there is a lack of research which concentrates specifically on linking the involvement of external business coaches with individuals who are resistant to change. However, this lack needs to be examined in theory, because although there are some accreditations available along with industry organisations operating in the field of coaching, anyone can call themselves a coach, and there are no standard education requirements or specific training prerequisites (Briner, 2012; McCarthy, 2010; Seligman, 2007; Sherman & Freas, 2004; Stewart et al., 2005). Therefore, theoretical evidence can examine current coaching practice and subsequently assure and enhance its quality. Thus, this study focuses on the interaction between these two areas in order to generate insights about the contribution of external coaches to change management, in particular when dealing with resistance.

Furthermore, this study addresses the interest of coaching practitioners and trainers, and elaborates practical implications. In detail, the empirical analysis conducted as part of the study has implications for training that is related to resistance. The field of training and development of coaches is addressed for two reasons: first, due to their lack of experience, young coaches are unlikely to know how to deal with resistance, and therefore will need training; and second, all coaches in terms of professional practice should be involved in continuous development and learning. Thereby, this study sets out to examine whether there is a training requirement (related to resistance) at all. This research interest is meaningful, regardless of a possible positive or indifferent contribution from external coaches. That is, if the study demonstrates that external coaching is useful to deal with individual change resistance, the training offer should be analysed to identify further

improvement potential; if the study demonstrates that the contribution of external coaching is rather insignificant or indifferent, or even negative, existing training should be reassessed with regards to its utility.

In summary, several scholars underline that the management of change is the main challenge organisations are increasingly confronted with in the current business environment. Individual resistance is thus a key obstacle that should be overcome for successful change to take place, and organisations seek support to effectively handle this resistance. As they increasingly hire external coaches to provide this support, and because coaching is now seen as a social process, it is worthy for the body of knowledge to place research exactly in this area by combining external coaching and change resistance. In addition, the purpose of this study is to identify the extent to which training and development sufficiently prepares coaches to support both the coachees, and their organisation during change management situations with respect to change resistance.

1.2 Research aim and questions

Based on the research rationale, this study aims to investigate to what extent external coaches can help individuals to effectively deal with changes in the working environment. Therefore, the main research question is as follows:

How can external coaching contribute to successful change management initiatives with regards to change resistance?

This research question can be disaggregated into a sequence of research sub-questions (using prefix RQ to denote each sub-question) to clarify the intent of this research project further:

RQ1: What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?

RQ2: How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?

RQ3: How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?

RQ4: What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?

All four research sub-questions are equally important in relation to the research objective.

1.3 Structure of this thesis

After this introductory chapter, chapter two is dedicated to the literature review which is divided into two parts. The first part provides an overview of the literature on change resistance, explaining the individual change process, the terminology of resistance, possible sources of resistance, and different approaches to deal with change resistance. The second part presents the relevant literature on coaching interventions and resistance to change, outlining the definition of coaching, success factors, and the potential of external coaching in dealing with change resistance. Afterwards, the conceptual framing of this study is outlined and the research questions are developed.

Chapter three covers the research design for this study. It begins by describing and justifying the philosophical position of the researcher. Once this position is established, the research

strategy is explained through the chosen research methodology, data collection method, time horizon, sampling strategy, and the data access approach. It continues with the methodology conducted to data analysis and closes with compliance and ethical considerations.

Chapter four presents the research data gathered through semi-structured interviews. It begins with the interviewee profiles before moving on to an explanation of the theme coding applied to the interviews. Following this, the interviewee responses are analysed based on this coding. In the last part the findings are inserted into the conceptual framing of this study.

After presenting the data, chapter five discusses the empirical findings. This discussion includes consideration of the identified literature, as revealed in chapter two, in order to answer the four research sub-questions introduced in chapter one. Afterwards, the conceptual framing is further developed.

Chapter six summarises the research results and outlines the contributions to both theory and professional practice. It also outlines the limitations of this study and the implications for further research opportunities in the field of coaching and resistance.

To conclude, chapter seven provides a brief summary of the author's personal and professional journey during this study.

2 Literature review

This chapter provides a comprehensive discussion of the literature on coaching interventions and resistance to change of coachees. It begins with summarising the existing research evidence on change resistance following the literature on coaching interventions. As a result, a conceptual understanding of resistance to change and coaching as an intervention tool is established through a discussion of theoretical approaches to individual change. Moreover, a conceptual framing of this thesis is presented. In the final part of the chapter, the development of the research question and sub-questions is detailed in light of the findings from the literature review, concluding with a summary of the gaps in the literature which aim to be addressed by this study.

2.1 Approach of the literature review

This literature review is comprised of the literature search strategy, the approach for synthesis, and the adoption of an abductive approach. These three aspects are presented in this section.

The literature search was conducted through the databases EBSCO's Discovery Service. The initial approach to literature search was oriented towards the main research questions. A search was applied by the search terms of "external coaches and resistance to change" and "external coaching and change resistance". This search revealed a number of published papers which were located in the following disciplines: history, sociology, education, political science and leadership. All of these disciplines were not part of the initial research questions. The first four disciplines lack a business environment. The articles in the area of

leadership are embedded in an organisational context, but focus on how managers should behave towards employees from an organisational perspective. Overall, this result showed that there is a gap in the literature about the contribution of external coaches to individual resistance to change. Therefore, the next step of the literature search was to apply two separate searching approaches that covered both main elements of the research question, individual change resistance and external coaching. The literature was searched for terms that are typically associated with resistance to change and external coaching.

For the field of resistance to change the search terms “change resistance”, “resistance to change”, and “psychology of resistance” were used. These search terms mostly resulted in references that were embedded in the areas of biology and health sciences, covering subjects such as obesity, gene expression, or insulin. In order to find references underlining the individual change resistance at workplaces the search terms of resistance to change were combined with search terms underlining the individual level of change, such as “individual change” and “individual change process”. The overall scope of the identified articles relevant for this thesis was related to the antecedents and preconditions of individual change resistance. Thereby, the literature was mainly relying on secondary research or quantitative research with very limited research performed in Germany.

The literature search on coaching was carried out by using the search term "external coaching". Articles were confined to the earliest publication date of the year 2000, as a steadily growing interest in coaching in research and practice developed during this time (Bennett & Bush, 2013, chapter 1.2, para. 2). From then on, coaching was not solely discussed as a discipline continuum of abilities and skills, but also as a profession and in the literature. In addition, several coaching associations such as the ICF Germany were founded (Hamlin, Ellinger & Beattie, 2009). Main subjects of the articles displayed in the search

results were leadership, managerial coaching, athletic training, and executive coaching. Only very few articles focus explicitly on external coaching. Most of the articles were related to coaching effectiveness and success factors and were conducted through quantitative research. However, also a large amount of qualitative empirical research has been undertaken in the context of coaching (de Haan, 2019). The research included case studies based on the experiences of coachees or coaches, process research through the study of reports, direct session recordings as well as through interviews and surveys. Additionally, action research was accomplished as in-depth exploration of coaching practice and the coaching relationship. Moreover, participatory research in practice and descriptive research on coaching actions and coaching situations were completed. Often the coaches themselves have undertaken qualitative research in the role of researchers exploring their own practice or that of other coaches. Therefore, the coach's perspective on coaching sessions is overrepresented in the literature (de Haan, 2019).

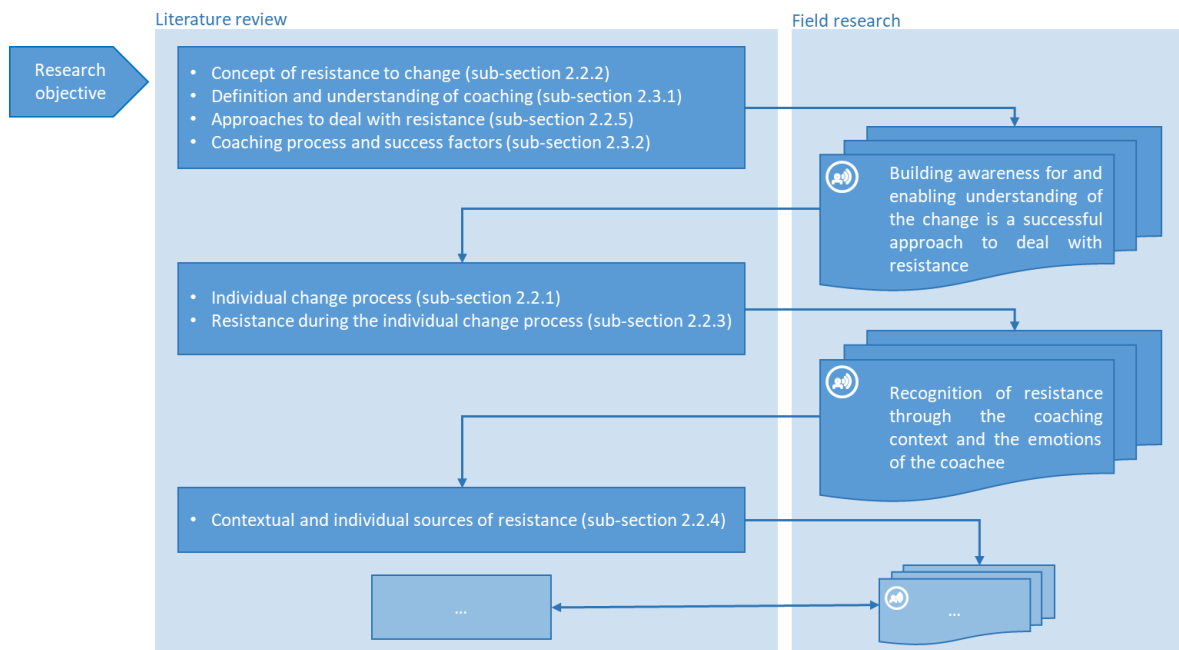
Furthermore, other sources were added based on citations listed in articles found using the above described search terms. Overall, many of the identified articles in both fields – external coaching and resistance- were quickly discarded after reading the summary and finding that they were clearly not relevant to this review (e.g. an article on individual resistance to climate change awareness). According to the abstract and the findings section of each of the remaining ones, articles were omitted that a) were mainly related to organisational change management and organisational change initiatives rather than have a focus on individual change, b) were not related to adults, and c) did not refer to a business context.

The researcher didn't use a statistic way to look at the literature review, because several of the selected sources were published as qualitative research or as theoretical arguments and

frameworks. Subsequently, after the article screening, two steps were applied to integrate research findings of the included papers. First, all sources were reviewed to scrutinise whether arguments relevant to the research questions of this thesis were addressed in the papers. These arguments include the understanding of resistance by external coaches, insights into the perception of resistance by external coaches, possible approaches and success factors for external coaches in dealing with resistant coachees at the workplace. In case these four sub-research questions were not specifically addressed, the sources were further analysed in step two to find content regarding the four research questions on an expanded scope. The arguments were included in the literature review if they met the following criteria:

1. Providing an understanding of resistance from other parties
2. Outlining general meaningful approaches and answers to resistance in a non-coaching context
3. Identifying coaching success factors in a coaching process

The entire thesis follows an abductive research approach. The abductive approach is constituted by a circular relationship between empirical data and theory (Danermark, 2002, pp. 80–81). Hence, an iterative strategy is applied to this literature review between literature search, review and findings of the field research. In detail, the literature review was developed in iterations performed between literature sources about change and coaching, and data gathered in semi-structured interviews with coaches and coach educators during field research. The adopted iterations are presented in figure 1. A detailed explanation of the abductive approach is presented in section 3.1.

Figure 1: Iterations between the literature review and the field research

As shown in figure 1, the literature was analysed according to the research objective. This resulted in theory about the resistance concept, the definition and understanding of coaching, the approaches to deal with resistance, and coaching success factors. Afterwards, the field research started, which indicated that awareness for and understanding of the change by the coachee is a promising approach to deal with resistance in the coaching process. Based on these findings literature was re-analysed. Literature about the individual change process and an explanation how resistance occurs in this process was identified. Another iteration was done to investigate sources of resistance, as interviewees indicated various sources that helped them to recognise resistance.

Furthermore, sub-sections that were developed as a prologue of the field research were changed based on empirical findings. A very detailed example was elaborated on the interviewee responses to investigate if resistance is evaluated as positive or negative. The interviewees replied that resistance is not only seen as positive or negative, but also as normal and neutral. Subsequently, literature was reviewed again to find indications for this statement. The article of Lawrence (1969) was identified where he stated that resistance is neither positive nor negative. The reference of Lawrence (1969) was therefore added to the literature review.

2.2 Resistance to individual change

This section presents an in-depth analysis of the individual change resistance and its leading frameworks developed by previous scholars. It begins with the definition of the individual change process and concepts of change resistance before considering the possibilities of resistance within the individual change process. Next, the section outlines the primary drivers and sources of resistance as well as the discussion of different approaches to deal with resistance.

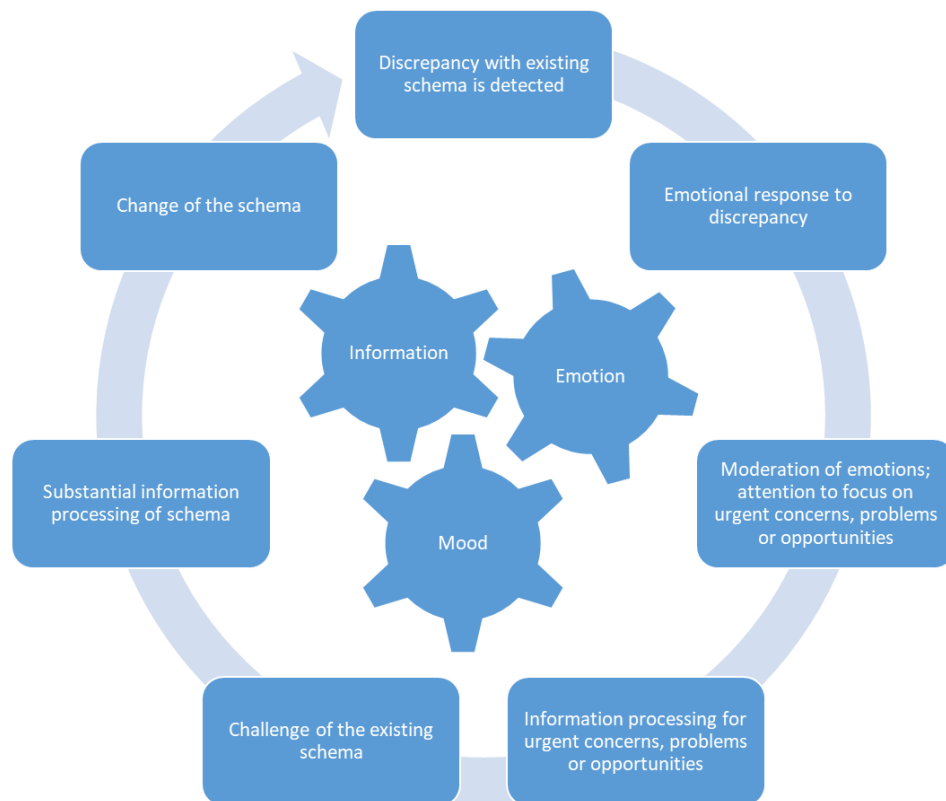
2.2.1 The individual change process

Changes are initiated and rejected by individuals. The implication is that organisations change and act only through their employees and even the most collective activities that take place in organisations are the result of a certain fusion of the activities of individual organisation members (Bareil & Gagnon, 2005). Therefore, an analysis of the change

process at the organisational or group level requires a scrutiny at the individual level. Hence, models and theories of change and inertia at macro-levels of analysis, such as at the organisational level, should be characterized by an understanding of change at the individual level (George & Jones, 2001). Thus, this sub-section outlines a model of the individual change process that is constructed from cognitive schemas, affective influences and behavioural expressions (George & Jones, 2001).

Schemas are abstract cognitive structures which are knowledge about different contexts and impressions of life (Bracher, 2012). These consist of different stimuli or concepts, their characteristics or attributes and the relationships between all these elements. Once a schema has been developed for a context, it is used to interpret information associated with it. Usually, information is interpreted in a way that matches and confirms the developed schema. Therefore, people construct and grasp reality according to their original expectations and perceptions (Rousseau, 2001).

Thus, it can be said that individual schemas lead to top-down or theory-driven processing in which new information is elaborated on the basis of existing organised knowledge. Therefore, information is hardly processed in a bottom-up method or taking into account actual facts or data. In addition, people's schemas are simplified theories about different contexts which help to order and understood diverse influences and situations in life (George & Jones, 2001). Following this schema a model for the change process of an individual is presented in figure 2 on the following page.

Figure 2: Individual change process based on George & Jones (2001)

This model of the individual change process is underpinned by two premises. On the one hand, it is assumed that individuals use their schemas to process information and thus recognise the sense of change. On the other hand, the model highlights that change is an emotional process. George and Jones (2001) point out that emotions play a central role, especially in being a main driver for individual change. In addition, they indicate that in an individual change process the dependence on emotion and cognition of an individual is decisive.

This model begins with the result of cognitive dissonance theory, according to which discrepancies produce dissonances and the associated desire to reduce the discrepancy

(Kulkarni, 2016). A discrepancy occurs for an individual if something does not fit to existing schemas of an individual. The discrepancy can come from a change within the wider environment, such as when customers behave in a way that is incompatible with own individual expectations, or from an organisation, for example when employees react to events that contradict to what was expected.

The second step includes the emotional response of an individual to a discrepancy. Workplace events cause emotional responses from employees (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Likewise, employee attitudes and behaviours are frequently influenced by emotions (Judge et al., 2017; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Emotions are affective states that interrupt ongoing thought processes and behaviour patterns (Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016). Emotions signal what people should focus their attention on and thus put people in a state of readiness to act. Emotions are triggered by the encounter with the unexpected and personally relevant (Frijda, 2016). Personally relevant means that something has a direct impact on personal goals or aspirations. Similar to discrepancies that can be positive or negative, emotions can also be positive or negative, matching the basic dichotomy of pleasure and pain (Frijda, 2016). The increased levels of arousal characteristic of emotions are triggered by discrepancies. This excitement in turn leads an individual to try to understand and interpret the discrepancy cognitively (George & Jones, 2001). It can therefore be said that emotions arise when discrepancies occur that are relevant to personal well-being or goals. Thus, emotions are signals for personally relevant situations that require attention (Kozak & Genç, 2014). This signalling function is complemented by the motivational implications of emotions. Emotions motivate the individual to cognitive activities and behaviour in order to deal with the individual change (Frijda, 2016). In summary, emotional reactions play a key role in the change process. The emotional response to a discrepancy is the most important signal for a person that there is

a condition that requires their attention. The emotion puts them in a state of readiness to deal with the discrepancy, stimulating cognitive processes and behaviours.

In step three, the individual tries to identify why the discrepancy does not fit to the schema and the resulting emotional response. It is assumed that emotional responses trigger a second reaction aimed at regulating and moderating the emotion (George & Jones, 2001). The moderation or control of emotions is done by the individual to protect themselves from possible negative effects of uninhibited emotions. In addition, people tend to focus their attention on relevant urgent concerns, problems or opportunities that minimize the negative and maximize the positive aspects of the discrepancy (Frijda, 2016; Kulkarni, 2016). As a result, people attempt to positively influence the process that helps them understand and identify the underlying problem of discrepancy and reduce the negative aspects as much as possible.

When the fourth step is reached, the emotion is transformed into a less intense mood and substantial information processing takes place in order to interpret the concern, problem or opportunity identified in step three (George & Jones, 2001). Due to their intensity, emotions are rather temporary and often lead to less intense affective states called moods. Moods are ubiquitous and generalised feelings or affective states that influence behaviour and thought processes in a more subtle way without interrupting them (Wong, 2016). In this phase a change in the information processing of the individual takes place, since the original discrepancy already contradicts the existing schemas (George & Jones, 2001). The information is no longer simplified with the help of existing schemas, but the information evaluation is carried out with consideration of all available data. Here, people tend to pay attention to the available data and information, including all specific details, in order to

incorporate the accurate evaluation and inclusion of the available information in the judgement formation (George & Jones, 2001).

In the fifth step of the change process the result of substantial information processing leads to some challenges for already existing schemas. That is, it is not enough for an individual to consider only the problem or concern underlying the initial discrepancy. They also consider the impact of the results of their information processing on their current worldview or schemas. For example, if a challenge to a schema is widespread, extensive, or relevant to several aspects of the schema, it is difficult to integrate that challenge into the schema. Hence, the change process moves to the next step (George & Jones, 2001).

In step six, individuals are engaged in changing or reshaping their views about the world. They have realised that their existing schemas are no longer sustainable to explain the challenge they face. As a result, they seek to change their schemas to solve the discrepancy. Thereby, positive moods now lead to individuals being expansive in their thinking and seeing ambiguous information in a positive light (George & Jones, 2001).

In the last step of the individual change process an actual change of the individual schemas takes place. This change includes not only the organised knowledge resulting from the information processing in the sixth step, but also the emotions associated with the change process and corresponding behaviour. If the new schema is activated in the future, the emotions associated with it will be activated and perceptions, interpretations and judgements guided by the schema will be influenced (George & Jones, 2001).

In summary, it can be interpreted that a workplace change is an emotionally charged process and that emotions have a decisive influence on the commitment to change, the effectiveness and the expectations of the recipients of change (Helpap & Bekmeier-

Feuerhahn, 2016). The individual change process is therefore explained as a process of emotions that leads to affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions in change recipients. The process is triggered because the change represents a discrepancy with the individual schema and as a result this discrepancy triggers emotions in the change recipient. Within the process of change, these emotions are reduced to moods that enable information processing and ultimately resolve the initial discrepancy. Through this dissolution, the individual schema is adapted and the individual change is accepted.

2.2.2 The concept of resistance to change

Resistance as part of the social and psychological nature of human beings

Resistance to change was first introduced into the field of social psychology in the late nineteenth century. Veblen, an American sociologist, assert that human nature contains “*an instinctive revulsion at any departure from accepted way of doing and looking at things ... only to be overcome by the stress of circumstances*” (Veblen, 1899, p. 80). He further states that the human mind is conservative about change. To some extent, Veblen’s view was aligned with the psychologist McDougall, who was one of the pioneers in the social psychology domain (Jost, 2015) and who highlights:

the tendency for all mental processes to become facilitated by repetition, the tendency to the formation of habits of thought and action which become more and more fixed in the individual as he grows older; and the consequent preference ... for the familiar and the dislike of all that is novel in more than a very moderate degree. (McDougall, 1908, as cited in McDougall, 2001, pp. 234–235)

Both Veblen (1899) and McDougall (2001) point out the inertness of human beings and the difficulties they experience when faced with change, grounded either on habits and customs or their mind. In contrast, Veblen suggests seeing human behaviour and reactions in the context of internal forces, such as the personality structure, and external forces like the current social environment of an individual. However, Lewin and Cartwright (1951) explain that the individual is part of a social group which has social standards, norms, and attitudes. This social environment represents a comfortable and protective environment for the individual and thus shapes their position. They argue that resistance to change occurs because a change would mean having to leave the social group and its benefits. Therefore, they conclude that change should be managed on a group level rather than on an individual level because the change of the social group affects the change of its individuals, including their attitudes (Lewin & Cartwright, 1951).

This is later underlined by Lawrence (1969), who stated that resistance is based on changes in the social system of the resistor. Festinger (1962) further developed Lewin and Cartwright's suggestion that an individual tends to stay in their social group by introducing the theory of cognitive dissonance. According to Festinger, an individual avoids understanding information which does not fit their existing worldview, while Lewin and Cartwright's theory does not consider individuals who are not integrated into social groups (Burnes, 2004; Burnes & Cooke, 2013). From an author's perspective, nowadays are also individuals whose focus is the virtual online reality, an area which needs further research in order to establish to what extent these virtual realities can be considered as a social environment.

However, all the positions discussed previously indicate that the individual psychological resources are predictors of the resistance intention (Sonenshein & Dholakia, 2012). The

debate in the field of social psychology implies that, for human nature, it seems to be risky or difficult to change as something unknown is challenging an existing mind-set, that evokes fears because it might be contrary to an existing paradigm.

Traditional and modern paradigms of resistance to change

Bareil (2013) outlines two paradigms of resistance, whereby a paradigm is seen as an individual's worldview. The two paradigms are first, resistance is an obstacle to change and second, resistance is a change resource. According to Bareil (2013), resistance as an obstacle to change is identified as the traditional paradigm of resistance and is linked to refusal and rejection, with the aim being to disturb or stop the change. However, the modern paradigm considers resistance as a change resource whereby the same behaviour is interpreted as feedback to the proposed change, with the aim being to understand and adapt to it (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Klonek, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Kauffeld, 2014). The resistor's feedback is interpreted as an essential contribution to change management because it shows the importance of the change for the resistor (Bareil, 2013). Bareil recommends always interpreting resistance along the modern paradigm; only if all efforts and activities to overcome resistance are not successful using the modern paradigm, should resistance be seen in the traditional paradigm. Apart from the wide debate about these two paradigms, much earlier Lawrence (1969) stated that resistance is neither positive nor negative. However, this view of resistance has not been pursued in later research.

A more detailed perspective of the two paradigms is presented in table 1 on the following page.

Table 1: Two paradigms of resistance to change (Bareil, 2013)

Interpretation of resistance	Traditional paradigm	Modern paradigm
What is resistance?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change specific behavioural response from the change recipient • Expressed by, e.g. defying, disturbing, rejecting • Interpreted by change agent as a restrictive force, an opposition against the change initiative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change specific behavioural response from the change recipient • Expressed by, e.g. arguing, ambivalence, questioning • Interpreted by change agent as a concern, a warning, a form of feedback, reflective response
What is the purpose of resistance?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stop or disturb the change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding, hold onto the good things from the past, adapt plans, adapt and change the change
Who is the person with resistance?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An individual that has the dispositional inclination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An individual offers feedback and cares about the organisation
How to deal with resistance?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coercion or negotiation • Actively managing resisters performance with an emphasis on long-lasting behaviour • Being specific about targets and expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proposing an open dialogue • Leading concerns and preoccupation • Promoting an environment of trust and openness to enlarge active participation and support

It is argued that the modern paradigm reconstructs the understanding of resistance to bring in a perspective where it can be seen as a dynamic between “recipient action”, “agent sense-making”, and “agent recipient relationship” (Ford et al., 2008). First, Ford et al. (2008) perceive everything that occurs under recipient action is in response to the change. Additionally, a resistance intention itself is often a partially confirmed sense-making of the

resistor (Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016). Second, agent sense-making includes the interpretation of the change agent as they assume that nobody can be completely objective. Third, the agent recipient relationship is the context where the other two are occurring and based on this understanding of resistance, three implications can be derived. Ford et al. (2008) highlight that resistance needs to be seen as apparent. Despite the feelings and inner thoughts that the change recipient has, there is always some observable behaviour. They further state that this behaviour is noticed by the change agents and labelled as resistance. The recipient's observable actions therefore provide the trigger for the change agents sense-making, even if the observable is different from the non-observable feelings and thoughts of the recipient. However, it is indicated that change agents can make sense of the observable and hypothesise about the internal thoughts targeting the resistance reducing activities (Ford et al., 2008).

Ford et al. (2008) point out that the first implication is to see resistance as an observable transaction. Second, resistance itself does not exist as a distinct independent phenomenon. It is mainly occurring because of the change agents, who label an action of a change recipient as resistance. This labelling is done based on a variety of motivations by the agent, for example, when resistance occurs the change agent might have more power as they to increase the pressure and communicate less tolerance than in another change status. The third implication is to question that "overcoming resistance" is only seen as an efficiently managed agent-recipient relationship by the change agent. Instead, Ford et al. (2008) consider it to be the responsibility of the change agent to be aware of their own sense-making as well as their relationship with the recipient.

Occurrence of resistance

Resistance can be shown—and seen—differently depending on the situation. Therefore, resistance is context specific and has a situational character (Courpasson & Vallas, 2016, pp. 7–9). Additionally, resistance can arise at different times either immediately following a change or deferred, depending on the change event and its implementation. Furthermore, resistance can either be shown directly or implicitly to the environment. In the case of deferred, and implicit, resistance, it is more difficult to identify the reason for it as this can be developed over a longer time period and includes a variety of triggers (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 615).

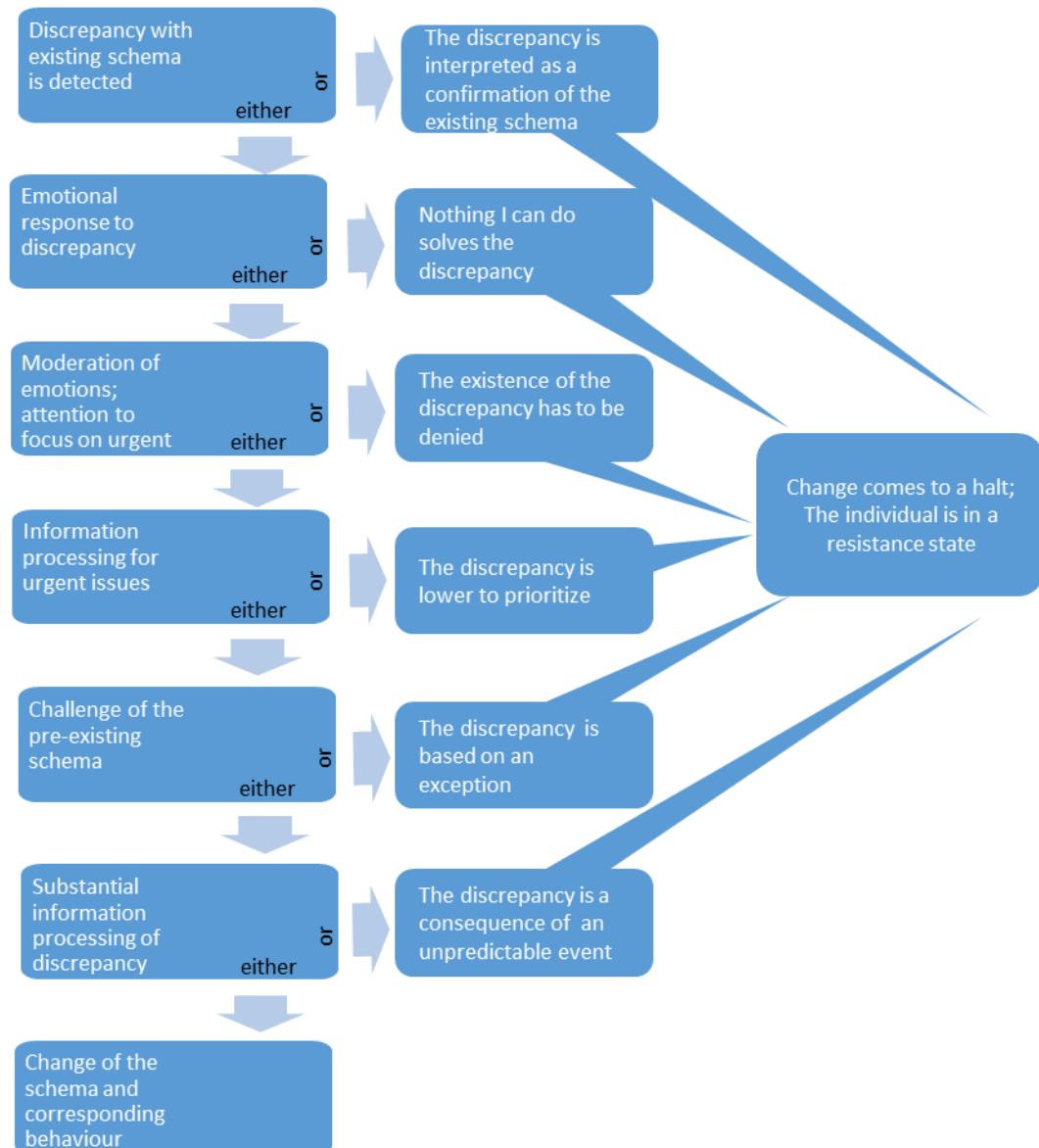
In summary, existing research on change resistance is classified into three dimensions. Thereby, resistance is explained as a cognitive state, as behaviour, or as an emotional state. Depending on each situation and individual, these dimensions can overlap (Oreg, 2003; Patalano, 2011; Piderit, 2000). Moreover, the discussion about different views on resistance demonstrates that the position regarding resistance seems to be changing. Nevertheless, recently there is a trend to see it in more of a positive, rather than negative, light (as outlined in the modern paradigm). During this study, the understanding of the term resistance by coach practitioners is evaluated.

2.2.3 Resistance during the individual change process

In the previous sub-section, the individual change process is introduced. This process can be stopped between all process steps by resistance. This sub-section outlines what assessments could be made by the individual following the process steps, which would

ultimately lead to resistance and thus stop the individual change process. Figure 3 shows the individual change process considering these individual assessments.

Figure 3: Resistance in the individual change process derived from George and Jones (2001)



Resistance to change in the first step of the individual change process arises when individuals adhere to beliefs contained in their schemas and are able either to rationalise the discrepancy or to understand it without changing their schemas (Fiske, 2000). Sometimes discrepancies can be rationalised to such an extent that they are even seen as support for one's own schemas (George & Jones, 2001). For example, an employee develops a product that has been slow to sell in the market. Therefore, the management has communicated a change to the employee by asking to rework the product. The employee understands the cause for these weak sales figures in the marketing campaign and not in the product itself. Rather, he believes that the low sales figures are proof of the product's potential and the fact that it has already been accepted on the market despite the poor marketing campaign. Even if there is no rationalisation, people may be able to find a sense of inconsistency without changing their schemas. This is particularly the case with highly specialised individuals who have well-developed schemas for a particular concept or field of knowledge. These well-developed schemas contain a high amount and complex information and thus become more resistant to inconsistencies. As a result, a discrepancy is more likely to make sense, because the discrepancy itself can be easily integrated into the existing schema (Fiske, 2000). In the above example, the employee might accept that the sales figures are low, but still refuse to overwork the product because he considers the low sales figures to be temporary and expects the sales figures to increase in the future.

Emotional reactions to discrepancies are prompts for action (George & Jones, 2001). In detail, workplace events can lead to emotional reactions, and these may influence attitudes and behaviours which can have either a positive or negative impact on the individual change process. In sub-section 2.2.4 these workplace events are explained in more detail and named as contextual sources of resistance. Even when emotions are minor and may not be having any effect, they should be considered as accumulation may lead to a negative impact

(Robbins & Judge, 2013, pp. 144–146). In the case of a negative impact, the individual is influenced by negative feelings associated with change, and therefore the individual concludes that nothing can be done to resolve the discrepancy. Hence, the change process is stopped and the individual reaches a state of resistance.

Resistance to changes in the next step is very likely to occur in negative discrepancies and emotional reactions. In this case, the process of change can be halted by the process of denial (Lazarus, 2006). When a person tries to control the initial emotional response, the process of denial can begin by minimizing or rejecting the existence of the initial discrepancy and associated emotions. Thereby, the individual distances himself psychologically from the discrepancy by turning to other issues and therefore denying this discrepancy (Lazarus, 2006). Consequently, the consideration of the discrepancy is avoided and stopped during the process of change.

In step four, resistance to change can occur when other urgent concerns or problems take precedence over the discrepancy cause. Since in this step the intensity of emotions has decreased, other more immediate or urgent concerns may require attention. As a result, the original discrepancy is postponed for the time being and the process of change is stopped. Even in case of a positive discrepancy, resistance may also emerge. Positive discrepancy means that positive emotions change into positive moods and the individual classifies the situation better than initially expected. In this situation, the individual could do nothing else, since in the current situation he is very satisfied with what has been achieved, and therefore sees no need for further improvement (Frijda, 2016). Such self-confidence develops that further chances, which lie in the positive discrepancy, are not weighed and used (Fiske, 2000).

In the fifth step of the change process, individuals decide to challenge their existing schema that can lead to stop the change (George & Jones, 2001). This resistance manifests itself in the fact that schemas are not changed due to the originality of the discrepancy, since the individual classifies the discrepancy as an exception. If a discrepancy to a schema is only relevant to one or a few aspects of the schema, it often does not lead to significant challenges for the schema itself. These discrepancies are usually dismissed by people as isolated exceptions (Bracher, 2012). So if an individual can understand the discrepancy as an exception, the schema remains unchanged and the process of change is stopped.

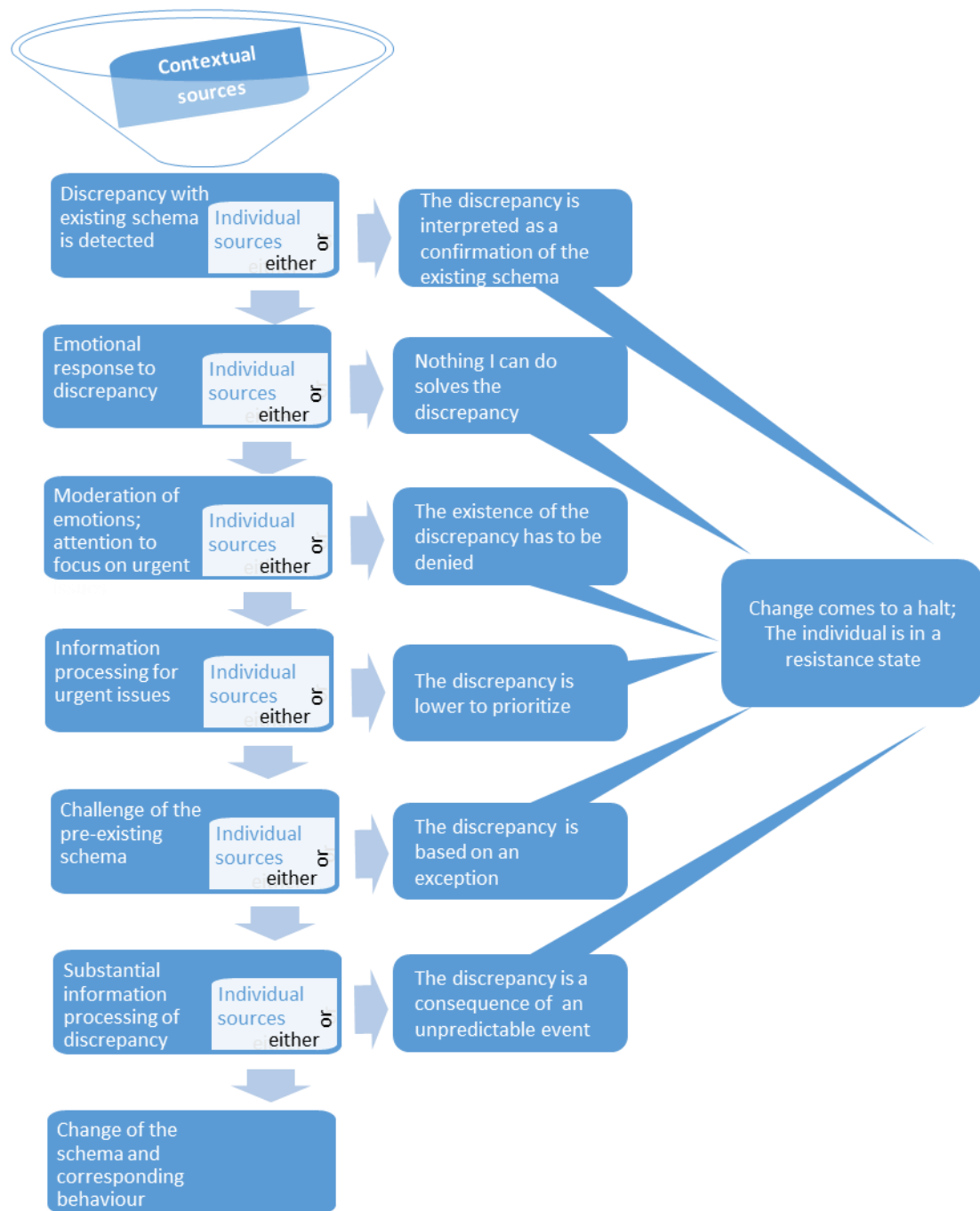
Change resistance in step six can be based on the fact that the challenge for the existing schema is considered insoluble. When individual changes are triggered by negative discrepancies, negative moods tend to cause the individual to focus on ensuring that their current knowledge is correct and that all mitigating circumstances have been considered (George & Jones, 2001). Hence, existing schemas will continue to be regarded as accurate or reasonable views of the world as long as there are no uncontrollable events. Uncontrollable events imply that some things simply happen, are unpredictable and uncontrollable, and therefore cannot be represented by a schema (Ibarra, Kilduff & Tsai, 2005). Consequently, the existing schema is not re-evaluated and adapted, but the process of change is stopped.

In summary, this sub-section provides an overview about the individual assessments of the process steps that can lead to a resistance state. The subsequent question is how these assessments evolved. In the next sub-section, various sources for resistance are outlined which, in connection with the dedicated process step, result in the assessments presented here.

2.2.4 Contextual and individual sources of resistance

As explained in the individual change process and the potential occurrence of resistance therein, the individual change process begins with a discrepancy between the change content and the individual schema. In this sub-section, possible contextual sources for this discrepancy are discussed. This is due to the fact that these sources can ultimately lead to resistance because they create a discrepancy. Thus, they are assumed to be the sources of resistance. As this thesis focus on resistance at the workplace the contextual sources are related to workplace events. Additionally, this sub-section outlines several individual sources of resistance. These can be apparent at any step of the individual change process, as they influence the individual's assessments that arise within the process steps. The occurrence of the resistance sources, both individual and contextual, within the change process is presented in figure 4 on the following page.

Figure 4: Sources of resistance in the individual change process derived from George & Jones (2001)



A contextual source of resistance is always the starting point of the individual change process, because a change in the context where the individual is operating provokes a discrepancy to their existing schema. Robbins and Judge (2013) outline four aspects of workplace changes that influence individuals and can lead to resistance. First, they state that different processes and regulations are developed and formalised over time to efficiently operate at the workplace. Over a period, these procedures become structural inertia, which causes changes in order to improve the processes to make them effective and efficient again. Second, at the workplace several units and departments are working closely together, that means change in one team usually affects other parts of the work community. Third, individual efforts to change might be constrained by group norms because the work is often delivered by teams comprising one or more groups. Fourth, power relationships established prior to the change can be influenced and threatened by a redistribution or change of decision-making authorities. As a result, it can be assumed that these four reasons could cause resistance from individuals, as they may not fit into existing employee schemas.

Prior to the work above, Bruckman's (2008) research considers that several stressors at the workplace, and hence sources for individual change resistance, are made up of different changes. These are: changes within the team, changes of adopted technology and processes, and changes of the schedule or workload. Additionally, workplace stressors can stem from the absence of supportive relationships, transparent communication, clear norms and standards, leadership support, and participation in decision making (Frahm & Brown, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016). These arguments are broadened with Kulkarni's (2016) study in an Indian company setting which highlights the new aspect of awareness of resistance. Kulkarni (2016) interviewed 54 employees who were described as resistant by Human Resources (HR) managers. The research finding revealed that resistors are not

aware of their own resistance. On the contrary, they perceive that their actions are better for the long-term development of the company or that their behaviours follow their principles and worldviews. In Kulkarni's (2016) research, resistant employees are understood as employees who are significantly affected by a change and in their direct response perceived as negative to the change. However, a direct negative response to a change is just one potential identifier for resistance. Resistance can be shown—and seen—differently depending on the situation. Therefore, resistance is context specific and has a situational character (Courpasson & Vallas, 2016, pp. 7–9). Additionally, resistance can arise at different times either immediately following a change or deferred, depending on the change event and its implementation. Furthermore, resistance can either be shown directly or implicitly to the environment. In the case of deferred and implicit resistance, it is more difficult to identify the reason for it as this can be developed over a longer time period and includes a variety of triggers (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 615).

In addition, there are several individual sources that have an influence at each step of the individual change process. One example are individual habits which were developed over a lifetime to manage ongoing life challenges. These habits can be considered as resistance sources when a proposed change interferes with them (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). Additionally, an individual's beliefs can be the source of resistance, particularly when they are linked to any other deep beliefs they may possess (Jost, 2015). Moreover, individuals are risk-averse because of their need for safety (Bailey & Raelin, 2015). This need can lead to resistance because change often questions the current situation. There is a fear of the unknown as change implies something new that might be not known in detail upfront (Bailey & Raelin, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). The aspect of cognitive disclosure is linked to these two points as it implies that individuals do not want to think about one topic for a more extended period. Uncertainty or feeling unsafe can consequently expedite the

process of cognitive disclosure by putting individuals under pressure (Kruglanski, Webster, & Klein, 1993). Furthermore, changes often leverage economic factors like work routines, productivity or the payment/salary of the individual. Hence, resistance can arise because people have fears for their economic future and employment. Therefore, further sources of individual resistance are self-interest and personal significance (Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616).

As noted earlier in this section, individuals have their own worldviews which influence their perceptions. In some cases, they only process certain information and thereby hear only what fits into their world to try to hold onto their beliefs (Kulkarni, 2016). This selective perception is first mentioned as part of the theory of cognitive dissonance. Similar aspects were outlined using the term “wishful thinking” which primarily includes adjusting an individual’s judgment of likelihood or probability to their liking or desirability (Egidi, 2014; Festinger, 1962; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). Based on the work of Lewin and Cartwright (1951), individuals are closely linked to their social environment which includes their family, friends, or groups with similar interests. Therefore, resistance to a change can be explained by the social validation of the environment, which might result in either group support or pressure (Jost, 2015; Lewin & Cartwright, 1951). It has been suggested that this resistance is lower when the change driver is a trustworthy source, an expert, or somebody from the same social environment (Jost, 2015; Lewin & Cartwright, 1951). Additionally, the evaluation of a change content mainly depends on the individual’s perception about what constitutes fairness and justifiability (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). This contrasts partly with the view of others such as Tormala and Petty (2004) that disagreeing with an expert often results in more self-confidence. Resistance is also related to persuasiveness (Anderson & McGuire, 1965). Therefore, it is argued that the more the person driving the change tries to persuade an individual to change, the more that individual is likely to resist such change

(Anderson & McGuire, 1965; Jost, 2015). From an author's perspective, it needs to be questioned whether a resistant individual is more inclined to overcome their resistance with persuasiveness, or if it will have the opposite effect and lead to further resistance. By confronting the resistant individual with weakening arguments, it might be that the individual will take an even more defensive stance, something which would make overcoming the resistance with persuasiveness even harder.

In summary, the literature outlines several contextual and individual issues causing discrepancies to individual schemas and are therefore potential sources for resistance to change. On the contextual side, these issues are linked to a variety of workplace changes as well as the absence of something such as information or professional working relationships. On the individual side, habits, beliefs, a need for safety, and different kinds of fears (including economic fear or fear of the loss of social validation) are sources for resistance. However, in relation to workplace changes the resistance source cannot be precisely assigned to either a contextual or an individual issue. This is because both contextual and individual issues are closely linked to each other. For instance, if there is a change in management, the employee will not become resistant because of the change itself. In fact, resistance develops due to the individual issue that is linked to that management change. This individual issue can be, for example, fear about the loss of the position within the team or an individual's dislike of the new manager (Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). Another example to illustrate this point could be workplace issues which arise in the absence of transparent communication. In such cases, the employee might develop resistance by believing that the lack of transparent communication belies a hidden agenda (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). However, if the employee did not associate anything with the absence of transparent communication, the employee would not become resistant.

2.2.5 Approaches to deal with resistance

According to Jones and Van de Ven (2016), change resistance strengthens over time if no action is taken to overcome it. Most research is derived from an organisational level or conceptualised results by secondary data or former experiences of the researchers. Research on an individual level is scarcely available. Moreover, as described earlier there is limited research available how coaches deal with resistance in their clients. Therefore, this sub-section describes approaches to managing resistance from various organisational level perspectives. It is highlighted what change leader, resistors, or organisations can do, and how the setup of change initiatives can support dealing with individual resistance. This is, as it is assumed that the research results can be used to derive insights that are also helpful for coaches working with a focus on the individual level of change. An overview of the research outlined in this section is provided in table 2 on the following page.

Table 2: Approaches to deal with resistant individuals

Approaches to deal with resistance	Environment where the approach is derived from	Person that should implement the approach	Reference	Origin of the research results	Sample
Clear and vital communication	Organizational change	Change leader	Doolin, Grant, & Thomas (2014); Ford & Ford, (2009); Paren (2015)	Secondary data	-
Education	Organizational change	Change leader	Paren (2015)	Secondary data	-
Consideration to perceive a benefit for thoughts, beliefs and behaviour of the change	Organizational change	Change leader	García-Cabrera & García-Barba Hernández (2014)	Quantitative data	143 change recipients
Detailed and repetitive communication	Organizational change	Change leader	Jost (2015)	Secondary data	-
Motivation of whole groups instead of avoidance of inconsistent behaviour in motivational interviewing	Organizational change	Change leader	Klonek et al. (2014)	Quantitative data	28 change recipients
Alignment of change objects with the organisational culture	Organizational change	Change leader	Pardo del Val & Martínez Fuentes (2003)	Quantitative data	86 managers involved in the change
Strong involvement of senior management	Organizational change	Change leader	Meaney & Pung (2008)	Quantitative data	3,199 senior manager
Be empathetic to find out the determining concerns	Organizational change	Change leader	G. E. Hall & Hord (2011)	Secondary data	-
Make the change impact transparent	Organizational change	Change leader	Hiatt (2006)	Secondary data	-
Detailed information about the change and its characteristics	Organizational/ group/ individual change	Change leader/ Manager	Bareil 2013	Secondary data	-
Demonstration of consequences of resistant behaviour					
Trained change leaders to overcome communication barriers	Organizational change	Change leader/ Manager	Predişcan, Braduţanu, & Roiban, (2013)	Former research experiences	-
Establish a culture of tolerance	Organizational/ group change	Change leader/ Manager	Brower & Abolafia (1995)	Qualitative data	Ethnographic study with managers
Be interested in alternative views		Organization			
Installation of a monitoring process					
Discursive and direct communication	Organizational change	Change leader/ Manager	Reissner & Pagan (2013)	Qualitative data	25 individuals and 3 groups from all hierarchies of one organization
Demonstration of organisational capacities	Organizational/ group/ individual	Manager	Bareil & Gagnon (2005)	Former research experiences	-
Education/ Communication, Participation/ Involvement, Facilitation/ Support, Negotiation/ Agreement, Manipulation/ Co-optation, Explicit/ Implicit Coercion	Organizational change	Manager	Kotter & Schlesinger (1979, 2008)	Work and consulting experiences of the authors	-
Awareness of own limitations and preconditions	Organizational change	Resistor/ Manager	Kegan & Lahey (2001)	Former research experiences	-

There is broad consensus in the literature that communication is vital for successful change management (Doolin, Grant, & Thomas, 2013; Ford & Ford, 2009). This is especially true for discrepancies due to a lack of information or misunderstanding between participants about a proposed change, where communication and education are primary supporting measures (Paren, 2015). However, to select and decide on the best approach the change initiator needs to classify the change situation. This classification includes the individuals that are

affected by the change. In addition, the classification needs to balance the drawbacks against the benefits of that approach, something which is not done in this literature.

García-Cabrera and García-Barba Hernández (2014) conducted a more in-depth analysis of changes based on a questionnaire response of 143 participants, noting that these changes influence thoughts, feelings, and behaviour. They state that cognitive dissonance, as one individual source of resistance, can be avoided by considering the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of the resistor in relation to a change. Furthermore, change needs to address perceived benefits to the employees for each of the three facets as perceived benefit for one does not necessarily lead to perceived benefits for all three. For example, communication can reduce resistance related behaviour but has much less influence on the thoughts and feeling of the resistor (García-Cabrera & García-Barba Hernández, 2014).

Following up on the change leader perspective, communication plays a central role in coping with resistance. In their qualitative study within a public-private partnership, Reissner and Pagan (2013) find that both primarily discursive (e.g. team meeting) as well as primarily directive (e.g. newsletter, whole organisation events) communication by managers to their employees increases the engagement in organisational initiatives. Although the study was limited to one company, it indicates how important communication is in order to convince and motivate employees for a change. Earlier quantitative work by Anderson and McGuire (1965) posit that resistance comprises ideology and truism, but this is only partly evidenced. They state that individuals are highly perceptive of persuasive action. Therefore, change leaders should concentrate on a detailed and repetitive communication to convince for the change (Jost, 2015). This can be summarised by saying that people tend to trust information which is familiar to them, and information might become familiar if it is communicated repetitively (Begg, Anas, & Farinacci, 1992). This is,

additionally, an argument why people develop more profound beliefs based on an ideology even if it is a truism (Jost, 2015).

In a further development of Lewin and Cartwright's (1951) work, it is stated that action is enforced when the driving forces pass the restraining forces (Burnes & Cooke, 2013). As part of this, a driving force is understood as a *"maximum amount of energy, an individual is prepared to invest, in a cognitive activity"* (Kruglanski et al., 2012). Besides these forces, early research considered that there are situational and dispositional factors which describe the commitment to change of an individual (Veblen, 1899, p. 80).

Moreover, Brower and Abolafia (1995) recommend, from the communication point of view, the need to establish a culture of tolerance. This means that the resistance event should be open to several interpretations and the change leader should be interested in these alternative views. Then it is easier for the change leader to gain a better understanding of reasons for resistance. However, it has to be considered that the study environment and its findings are mostly related to bureaucratic resistance, something which aligns with the understanding of resistance due to the modern paradigm.

With an emphasis on change agents, Klonek et al. (2014) find in their quantitative study that communication is supportive in overcoming resistance. They identify that inconsistent behaviour in motivational interviewing promotes further resistance as *"change agents battle against the recipient's resistance"* (Klonek et al., 2014). Such inconsistent behaviour is characterised by confronting and arguing about the change initialised by the change agent. Scholars who see resistance as a clearly defined phase within the change process conclude, on a very high level, that change management which includes trained change agents as well as an appropriate time frame and budget is crucial to handle resistance successfully (Predișcan, Braduțanu, & Roiban, 2013).

Involvement and participation driven by a change leader can also help to handle resistance. Firoozmand (2014) ties this to the different positions of people within a change process. Here, it is suggested that there is a requirement to identify not only catalysts and change champions, but also to pay attention to people who are enthusiastic and willing to support the change as they could be used to build acceptance of change within the organisation.

When considering different implementation perspectives, the approaches mentioned above are also reflected by the early, but still relevant, work of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979, 2008). On a very high level six general methods that help change leaders to deal with resistance and their strengths and limitations are identified (Kotter & Schlesinger (1979). Briefly summarised these methods are: communication and education (e.g. by discursive and primarily communication), participation and involvement (e.g. by the identification of change supporters), negotiation and agreement (e.g. by persuasiveness), and facilitation and support (e.g. through development of a culture of tolerance), manipulation and co-optation, and explicit and implicit coercion (Kotter & Schlesinger (1979). These general methods relate to an organisational level and do not take into account the different perspectives and schemas of an individual. They are developed based on the work and consulting experiences of the authors and therefore its reliability, validity and representativeness need to be questioned. Nevertheless, since these research findings from Kotter and Schlesinger's original study (1979) have been confirmed by several other scholars (Bareil, 2013; Bruckman, 2008; Greif, 2007; McKay et al., 2013) they are considered in this thesis.

Moreover, there are some scholarly findings that outline what can be done from the perspective of the resistor itself. Kegan and Lahey (2001) note that overcoming resistance is linked to awareness of one's own limitations and they identify underlying preconditions.

By that, they recommend the following procedure, either undertaken by the resisters themselves or the managers, to support the resistor: First, gaining awareness of the resistor's own behaviour. Second, searching for contrary evidence. Third, remembering the history. Fourth, testing the expectation, and fifth, evaluating the outcome. This process helps to understand behaviours and attitudes, and can enlighten the resistance reason. However, this process presupposes the honesty and openness of the resistor, something which cannot be assumed.

Following the perspective of the whole organisation where change initiatives are running, there is other scholarly advice on dealing with resistance. By considering the findings from their study with public managers, Brower and Abolafia (1995) recommend the implementation of a monitoring process to understand the reasons for, and development of, the change resistance phenomenon. Thereby, they posit, the learning process of the whole organisation can be improved (Brower & Abolafia, 1995). However, it can be challenging to monitor—or even identify—resistance if the resistance is not shown actively by the employee. Additionally, managers need to have a consistent organisation-wide definition of resistance in order to decide if something needs to be documented.

From the perspective of the overall change setup, the importance of communication and training is reflected, for instance, in a quantitative study with Spanish organisations (Pardo del Val & Martínez Fuentes, 2003). According to the study results, it is crucial to align change objects with the organisational culture. This can be done by considering deep-rooted values of the change participants in order to ensure that these values are compatible to the change objectives. As a consequence, managers and their employees would be more aligned and the lack of communication and organisational silence decreases. Furthermore, the importance of appropriate training to overcome communication barriers is emphasised.

However, the sample does specify the size of the participant organisations as more than fifty employees within the branches of engineering and construction. From an author's perspective, this is too unspecific to provide recommendation for the extent of the change initiatives, especially since several authors point out that scope, size, and duration of a project have significant relationships with change resistance (Lines, Sullivan, Smithwick, & Mischung, 2015). Moreover, only 15% of the returned questionnaires were from the top management level and there is no detailed information as to which role the respondent had performed in the change initiative. In fact, the role could be essential in order to assess and consider the perspectives from which the answers were given.

Based on the understanding of the term resistance explained in sub-section 2.2.2, scholars that are closely linked to Lewin underline the importance of handling resistance to change through democratic procedures (Jost, 2015). They further suggest using communication that focuses on motivating whole groups for participation, rather than just the individual (Jost, 2015).

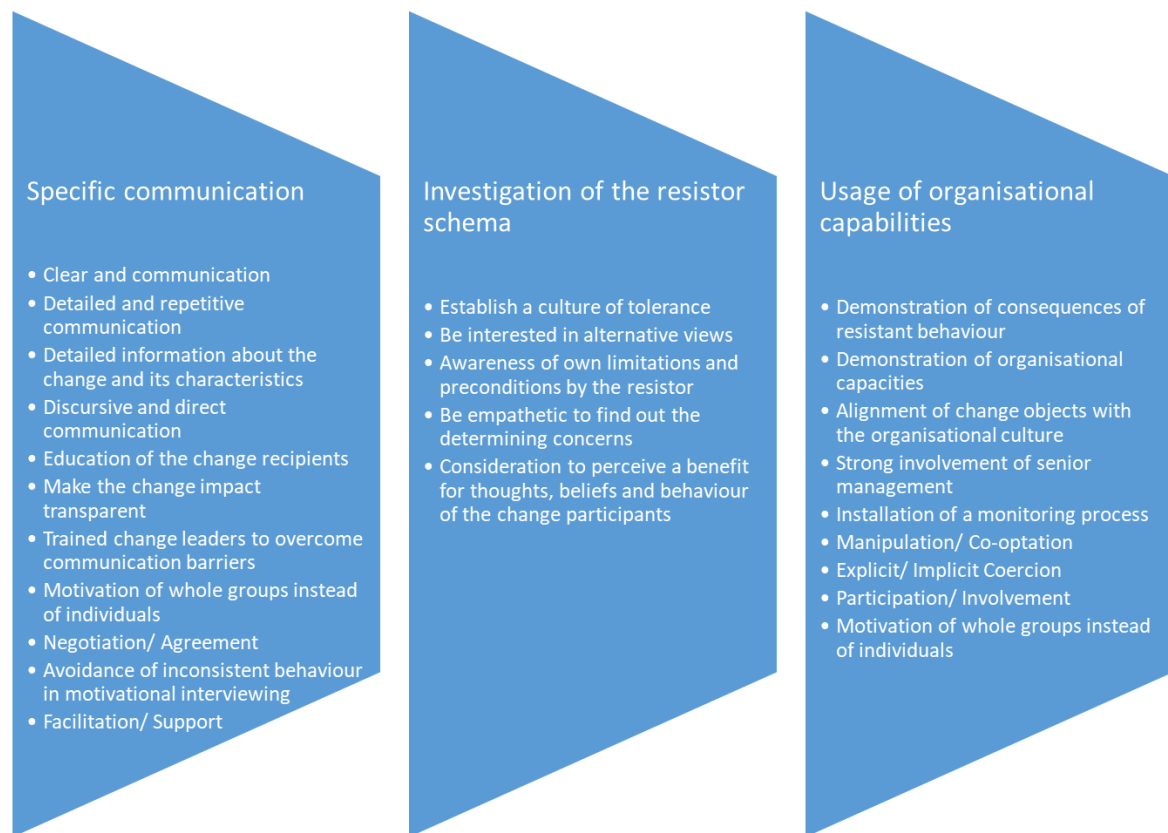
The approach of participation and involvement is evidenced in a quantitative research with senior managers by Meaney and Pung (2008). They recommend that change is all the more successful if the senior management is actively involved and visible in the change process. In addition, it is investigated that a change is more successful if the change is driven by those who lead it, rather than by managers or change agents who are just acting on instructions from the senior management (Firoozmand, 2014).

Understanding change resistance as valuable feedback (see sub-section 2.2.2 on the "modern paradigm") implies that the preoccupations of resisters are valued. Preoccupations are an element of research into organisational change concepts which have explored how to respond to them (Bareil, 2013). With focus on change resistance, these

preoccupations can be clustered into three categories. The first category is about the resistor personally, where the resistor has preoccupations about the personal impacts of the change such as job security or working conditions (Chreim, 2006; Hall & Hord, 2011, pp. 70–75). The second category is about the organisation where preoccupations are focused, for example, on change legitimacy, organisational capabilities, or commitment of the management. The third category is about the change itself, and thus, preoccupations are based on the meaningfulness and the confirmability of the change (Hall & Hord, 2011, pp. 70–75). Depending on the preoccupation category literature provides different methods for handling these preoccupations.

For preoccupations in category one it is suggested being empathetic in order to find out what determines the intensity of these concerns (Hall & Hord, 2011, pp. 70–75). Furthermore, it should become transparent what the change impact for the resistor is, regardless if this is a threat or an opportunity (Hiatt, 2006, p. 19). For the category two preoccupations, Bareil and Gagnon (2005) outline the importance of demonstrating the organisational capacities of the resistor. This should preferably be done by top management to evidence the management commitment. For category three preoccupations, there should be detailed communication about the change and its characteristics (Bareil, 2013). This is also true when the resistance could not be softened, and consequently needs to be dealt with in the sense of the traditional paradigm. According to the work of Bareil (2013), it is sufficient to demonstrate the consequences of this behaviour, focusing on the individual's performance and clarifying the future behavioural and job expectations.

To summarise, the approaches to deal with resistance related to the above research can be clustered in three groups as presented in figure 5 on the following page.

Figure 5: Summary of approaches to deal with resistance

Some of the approaches to deal with resistance mentioned in this sub-section are reflected in the sources of resistance described in sub-section 2.2.4. For instance, one source of resistance is non-transparent communication while one approach to deal with resistance is a detailed communication about both the change reason and the change initiative status. However, it can be said that research into the explained approaches tends to reflect the positive view on resistance—the modern paradigm (see sub-section 2.2.2).

In existing research the approaches are outlined to be implemented by change leaders, managers, the resistor itself, or an organisation. However, as initially described, these approaches can be used to identify indications of potential approaches to dealing with

resistance by external coaches. The three groups presented in figure 5 suggest that the groups about communication and schema identification might also be suitable for coaches. Thus, the approaches of the communication group could be used, since the one to one relationship in coaching allows a very targeted and individually specific communication (Ford et al., 2008). The approaches related to the schema identification are also promising, since the cognitive and emotional level of the individual is very central in coaching (Stober, Wildflower, & Drake, 2006).

2.3 Coaching intervention and resistance to change

This section focuses on the introduction of coaching interventions and its success factors with regards to resistance to change. It begins with a detailed overview about the definition and understanding of coaching and continues to discuss the role of emotions in coaching. Finally, empirical literature that links coaching to change resistance and the reason why external coaching might be an approach to deal with change resistance is outlined.

2.3.1 The definition and understanding of coaching

The definition of coaching given to date by coaching scholars builds the main part of this sub-section from which a definition applicable for this study is derived. Furthermore, the role external coaching practitioners play in the process of change are discussed and an explanation of the emerging coaching research focus is provided.

Coaching intervention draws upon diverse disciplines, for example sociology, psychology, and andragogy. Many definitions already exist in literature and these form a basis for

further definitions (definition adjustments). This takes place because researchers in many disciplines, for example sociology, deal with the topic of coaching as part of their studies (Bond & Seneque, 2012; Schutte & Steyn, 2015). Early definitions of coaching state that it can improve the performance of an individual or an organisation by providing knowledge and opportunities (Evered & Selman, 1989; Farris, 1978; Popper & Lipshitz, 1992). With the new millennium coaching became located in the context of development and learning, and was seen as process related (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Peterson, 1996). Recently, coaching has started being used for many varying purposes, for example, by organisations to develop and improve their employees to a level that is beneficial for organisational performance (Schutte & Steyn, 2015). One potential explanation for this development is that a strong alignment between coaching and organisations might support organisations to allay increased concerns about their performance, sustainability, and competitiveness (Bond & Seneque, 2012).

Thus, four essential characteristics can be identified within the literature about coaching definitions. First, coaching is characterised as a process. Within this process, the coach tries to cocreate the initial situation where the coaching takes place (Witherspoon & White, 2000, p. 167). Second, coaching seeks to establish an environment of trust which encourages an open relationship between the coach and coachee and subsequently enables the coachee to learn and develop (Grant, 2003). Third, the primary objective of coaching is to stimulate a behavioural change in the coachee that is sustainable and builds a solid basis for further enhancement (Schein, 2006, pp. 67–78, 2009, p. 71). Fourth, the focus of coaching lays on developing the potential of the coachee (Wilkins, 2000, p. 153). In summary, coaching is seen as a discovery process for potential development that seeks to achieve a sustainable change within an environment of trust.

One or more of these characteristics can be found in recent definitions, such as that by Cox, Bachkirova, and Clutterbuck (2014, p. 1) who describe coaching as *“a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools, and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders”*. Prior to this, Hamlin et al. (2009, p. 18) proposed the following definition that summarises the similarities of an analysis of 36 definition: *“Coaching is a helping and facilitative process that enables individuals, groups/teams and organisations to acquire new skills, to improve existing skills, competence and performance, and to enhance their personal effectiveness or personal development or personal growth.”*

Also, with special regard to coaching within a business context the above-mentioned aspects, for instance coaching as a helping process that seeks sustainability, are reflected in several definitions. One example, Hamlin et al. (2009, p. 18) defines coaching as *“a collaborative process that helps business, owner/managers, and employees achieve their personal and business related goals to ensure long-term success”* (Hamlin et al., 2009, p. 18). Similarly, Passmore (2016, p. 12) explains that the main idea of coaching is *“empowering people by facilitating self-directed learning, personal growth, and improved performance”*. Further definitions include the 2009 Coaching Conundrum Report that defines coaching as *“helping another person to figure out the best way to achieve his or her goals, build skill sets or expertise, and produce the results the organisation needs”* (BlessingWhite, 2008). Related to the research question, the Coaching Conundrum Report sees coaching as an enabler to achieve the goals of the coachee. However, if a coachee is resistant, their own goal is often not to overcome this resistance, but possibly more to stop the change that has initiated their resistance.

Nevertheless, the definitions discussed above lack the aspect of an environment of trust underlined as an essential characteristic for efficient coaching (e.g. by Grant, 2003), instead heavily focusing on potential and skill development. Moreover, the aspects of goal setting and goal achievement are elaborated in these definitions. Hence, the summary of the main aspects of a coaching definition can be adjusted by the addition of goal setting: Coaching is therefore seen as a discovery process for potential development that seeks to reach a set goal as well as to achieve a sustainable change within an environment of trust.

More recently, the focus of coaching has shifted to the process itself. Thereby, coaching seeks to facilitate and help the coachee to learn and develop. Both objectives are supported by a collaborative working alliance between the coach and the coachee (Lai & McDowall, 2014). Hence, coaching establishes a helping relationship that aims to achieve learning and growth in others (Moen & Federici, 2012). That is, coaching is one of the helping relationships alongside counselling, mentoring, consulting, therapy, and training. Each of these helping relationships has special attributes (Bennett & Bush, 2013, chapter 1.2, para. 4). According to Cox et al. (2014, p. 3), coaching is defined by distinguishing the ultimate purpose, the type of clients, and the process. Therefore, the following questions are answered within the dedicated coaching definitions to distinguish coaching from the other helping relationships: What is the help for? Who uses the help? How is the help delivered? However, answering these three questions can be seen critical as the various genres and theoretical approaches of coaching are partially concrete in their characteristics and definitions (Bachkirova, 2007).

In general, there is a helper (coach) and a receiver (coachee) required in the helping relationship of coaching. According to Schein (2009, pp. 31–36), there is an imbalance within these relationships, namely “one up-ness” for the coach and “one down-ness” for

the coachee. When help takes place, the coachee has a subordinate role in comparison to the coach as the coachee is seeking and receiving help. Hence, the coach has a stronger role than the coachee within the coaching relationship. In contrast to Schein, several other studies examine the coachee as the centre of the coaching relationship rather than the subordinate. For example, Gessnitzer and Kauffeld (2015) suggest that coaching is more successful when the coachee is leading rather than following the lead of the coach. Further research indicates that the coach should facilitate but not control/lead the relationship (Baron & Morin, 2009; Boyce, Jackson, & Neal, 2010). In the context of this study, it is questionable if this imbalance, as suggested by Schein, can be assumed as coaches are often expected to be contracted and paid by an upper management level and not by resistors themselves. Hence, the coach is provided by the management and the coachee may not have sought the coach. Therefore, the coachee may not feel in a subordinated role. For example, sometimes the coachee gets a coach as part of a reward for good performance. In these situations, the coachee tries to get the best out of the coaching and probably even leads the coach towards issues they want to discuss. This multi-stakeholder contracting does include the coachee and a representative of the organisation such as an HR specialist or the manager of the coachee (Turner & Hawkins, 2016).

Also, according to Bennett and Bush (2013, chapter 1.2, para. 3), coaching focuses mainly on three areas: performance improvement, skill development, and transformation and development. These areas influence the process and objective of coaching either separately or together. In the first area, it is used to improve performance in a job or for personal related issues. In the second, it is applied to develop further skills and behaviour, to gain knowledge, and to build awareness. Finally, the third focus area is about transformation and development. Coaching of the latter is conducted to enable people to go beyond their boundaries and move from one stage to another, which can be for example a shift within

profession and career (Psiloutsikou, 2016). Additionally, development coaching supports people in their recent and future challenges by improving their understanding of themselves and their environment. One approach is transformational learning where the reflective action of the coachee is supported by the coach, for instance, by facilitating the negotiation of opinions instead of passively accepting these opinions (Gray, 2006). Often, coaching methods are applied which engage emotional competencies, meaning making, and working in teams (Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010). Recently, well-being has been added as a focus for cognitive behavioural coaching aiming to reduce stress and build resilience (Grant, 2017).

Overcoming resistance is interpreted by the author as being part of the focus area about performance improvement, because this includes both the application of knowledge and skills to achieve a goal and acting on a dedicated plan (Bennett & Bush, 2013, chapter 1.2, para. 3). Hence, the summary of coaching definitions can be further adjusted with an emphasis on coaching resistors: Coaching is seen as a discovery process in the framework of a helping relationship for potential development and performance improvement that seeks to reach a set goal as well as to achieve a sustainable change within an environment of trust.

External coaching

External coaching indicates that the coach is not an employee of the organisation where the coachee is employed (Moen & Federici, 2012). An external coach has a contract either with the organisation where the employee is employed or directly with the coachee (Frisch, 2001). External coaches do not have any insider knowledge about the organisation, the industry, or the internal role of the coachee within its company (Schalk & Landeta, 2017). This lack of insider knowledge results in a neutral position without any conflicting interests

regarding the organisation because the coach is only hired for the coaching assignment (Miller & Subbiah, 2012). The coachees might therefore consider that if a coach is provided externally they won't know the organisation or its employees very well. Hence, it is easier for an external coach in comparison to an internal coach to keep the professional boundary. Additionally, the risk that the coach will tell somebody from the organisation any insights from the coaching process is rather low (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999; Smith, 2015). Nevertheless, coaching is often a negotiated triad between the coach, the coachee, and the organisation. Therefore, from the author's perspective, coachees trust can be eroded because the coach is contracted and paid by an organisation which follows its own organisational objectives. Hence, the organisation might influence the coach.

Even though legitimacy, independent from the person who is coaching, is essential for the change resistance of a coachee. This legitimacy might be higher in cases where an external coach is involved (Quy Nguyen, Corley, & Kraatz, 2014; Schalk & Landeta, 2017). At the same time, the lack of insider knowledge might slow down the coaching process because the coach has to spend time familiarising themselves with the organisation, the business background, and the role of the coachee (Miller & Subbiah, 2012). This may have financial consequences as a longer coaching process is reflected in the costs of the coaching assignment (Quy Nguyen et al., 2014). To recap, the main difference between an internal and external coach is the insider knowledge that has an influence on legitimacy, confidentiality, and trust within the coach-coachee relationship. However, as resistance is a very sensitive topic, and is often caused by internal colleagues or issues, from the perspective of the author the employment of an external coach might be a better approach to respond to this resistance than an internal colleague working as a coach.

In summary, coaching is understood as a one-to-one helping relationship that develops individual potential and improves performance by changing behaviour through learning. Moreover, it determines goals and objectives; helps a coach to find out how coachees behave, what they think, and what their way of working is; establishes an environment of trust within which the coaching will take place; and works to achieve set goals. Thus, the coach is hired for a limited period by the organisation where the coachee is employed. Internal coaching is not considered as part of this study and is outside of the scope of the research focus because of the researcher's professional background and personal research interest.

After completing a review of coaching definitions and deriving a coaching definition valid for this study, the coaching practice and associated success factors are described next.

2.3.2 Coaching process and success factors

This sub-section is divided into two parts. The coaching process is discussed during the first part, with the essential elements and influential factors of each phase being investigated. The second part investigates the role of emotions within coaching as it is assumed by the researcher to be one success factor.

The coaching process itself is not precisely defined in the literature, for example, Du Toit (2011) refers to it as a "Black Box or Sacred Space". However, dedicated input and output factors are outlined, for instance, the coaching relationship, coaching techniques, and contracting. Similarly, Wang (2013) reviewed 15 different coaching models to explore their essential characteristics. The reviewed models include for example Appreciative Enquiry (Liston-Smith, 2008), Neuro-Linguistic-Programming (Linder-Pelz & Hall, 2007; O'Connor &

Seymour, 1993), and the CRAIC (Control; Responsibility; Awareness; Impetus; Confidence) model (O'Donovan, 2009). According to Wang (2013), there are seven key elements for the development of a successful coaching practice: the coaching relationship, the learning process of the coachee, the evaluation of the coaching result, context and environment, coaching skills, attitudes of the coach, and ethical considerations. Concerning those in literature such as Du Toit (2011) and Wang (2013), and applied to the context of the external coaching set up, the leading aspects of coaching practice are illustrated in figure 6.

Figure 6: Key elements in coaching practice derived from Bennett and Bush (2013, chapter 4.1)

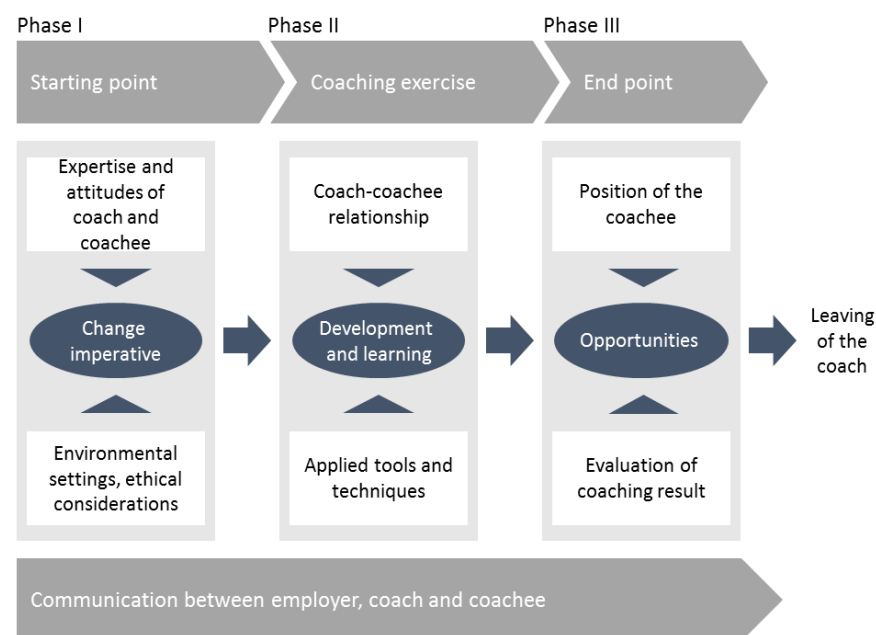


Figure 6 shows main phases of the coaching practice and their key factors: the starting point, the coaching exercise itself, and the endpoint. The detailed factors affecting the coaching process are explained next.

The starting point is characterised by an initial motivation or reason (i.e., why a coaching process begins). This trigger is often provoked by the employer. The initial motivation is usually understood as an imperative to change, because the only other possibility for the employer to deal with a consistently resistant employee is often the termination of the employment contract. There are three crucial input factors to this initial situation. The first factor is driven by skills, capacities, experiences, and mind-sets of the coach and coachee. The knowledge required for a coach can be differentiated between professional knowledge, intra and inter-personal knowledge, and the combination in terms of integration through the coachee's knowledge (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Results for the coachee are influenced by the character, the confidence, and the competence of the coachee themselves (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Both coach and coachee have worldviews, values, and expectations that might be central to the coaching process, such as socioeconomic status, religious beliefs, or age (Stober, Wildflower, & Drake, 2006). Likewise, Bachkirova (2015) suggests, based on her research with experienced coaches and coach supervisor, that coaches should not minimise their self-deception because it is not beneficial for the coaching process. In terms of the competency of a coach, Allison and Harbour (2009, pp. 61–64) identify that a competent coach possesses several key attributes. These are empathy, openness, trustworthiness, and optimism.

The second factor is the environment within which the macro and micro-economic factors such as the political, business, and private situations of both parties are described. The environment includes the room and situation—such as the day and/or time where the coaching takes place. Thus, the environment is not only the physical framework of coaching but also encompasses the social environment of the organisation, for example, the coachee's colleagues and managers (Wang, 2013). The third factor is reflected in ethical considerations and boundaries. Much of the literature about ethical issues in coaching

practice pays particular attention to confidentiality, integrity, and consent (Cox et al., 2014, pp. 435–438; Passmore, 2009; Peltier, 2001). Additionally, several studies indicate that there are shared ethical issues with psychotherapy and counselling, such as autonomy and fidelity (Duffy & Passmore, 2010; Jones, 2001).

In summary, the first phase of the coaching process results from an initial motivation and is influenced by mind-sets and skills of coach and coachee, by macro and micro-economic and private environment, as well as by ethical considerations.

The second phase is the coaching process itself. This is mainly influenced by the conducted coaching approach, which is often combined with several theoretical frameworks (Du Toit, 2011). Due to contemporary coaching practice, coaches choose their approach from different frameworks and their models depending on the set objectives (Adams, 2016; Bono, Purvanova, Towler, & Peterson, 2009; Greif & Benning-Rohnke, 2015). Four possible concepts underpin the choice of approach: functionalist, engagement, revolutionary, and evolutionary (Brockbank, 2008). Moreover, similar to the starting phase, the environmental settings influence the coaching process itself depending on the place and time of the coaching session. The most crucial element of this phase is the coach-coachee relationship as it is key to the effectiveness and success of coaching (Boyce et al., 2010; Graßmann, Schölmerich, & Schermuly, 2019). When forming this relationship, Lai and McDowall (2014) suggest that five factors need to be considered. The first factor is the establishment of trust and confidence, for example by achieving collaboration, credibility, and engagement (Boyce et al., 2010). The second factor is associated with practical communication skills including listening, being interested in asking questions, and giving feedback (Ford et al., 2008). The third factor implies the individual behaviour and reactions of the coachee that should be reflected by an emphatic coach (Du Toit, 2014). A coach needs to be committed and able to

calibrate the coachee as well as considering that the coachee also evaluates the coach and the process during the whole coaching journey (Ianiro, Schermuly, & Kauffeld, 2013). The evaluation by the coachee not only refers to the coaching sessions, but also to the time after a coaching session. By this, the coach provides the coachee with tasks to take home or where the coachee reflects on the coaching session afterwards (Linder-Pelz & Lawley, 2015). The fourth factor focuses on the development process of the coach, whereby the coach should support the learning requirements of the coachee (Lai & McDowall, 2014). Finally, the fifth factor includes an active administrative part of the relationship with regards to a clear and transparent contract and procedure. The coaching process itself is described by Du Toit (2011) as *“non-linear, person-centred and goal-oriented”*. Thereby, the initial goals of the coach, the coachee, and the employer need to be considered (Turner & Hawkins, 2016). Furthermore, it must be recognised that these goals might change during the coaching process (Greif & Benning-Rohnke, 2015).

In summary, the second phase of the coaching process is characterised by the conducted coaching approach and its theoretical framework, by the environmental factors, and most importantly by the coach-coachee relationship. With respect to this relationship, most researchers suggest that the main influencing factors for a successful coach-coachee relationship are trust, communication, collaboration, commitment, and confidence.

The last phase of the coaching process takes place after the coaching itself ends. It should be considered that the position of the coachee might change based on the coaching exercise (Greif, 2007). The key point in this phase is the evaluation of the coaching and the coaching outcome. Different techniques support these assessments, such as direct feedback from the coachee to the coach or through coaching supervision (de Haan, 2017).

Even though the main elements of the coaching process were identified at the end of this first part of the chapter, one of the most crucial elements for this study are the applied coaching models and techniques. These are the context related elements and therefore highly dependent on the coaching theme. Thus, one focus of this study is to identify coaching models and techniques that support the ability to deal with resistance. As resistance is often linked with emotions on the resistor side—and the coach is also a human being with natural emotions—the role of emotion in coaching is investigated next. Hence, there is an emphasis on: the critical moments in a coaching session, emotions of the coach and the coachee; approaches for coaches to use in handling emotions; and lastly, the approach of Emotion Coaching.

Emotions on both the coach and the coachee side could lead to critical factors as the definition of emotions is not agreed within the scholarly world (Cox & Bachkirova, 2007). Therefore, this lack of definition could result in different understandings of the verbal and nonverbal information shared within a coaching process (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1997, p. 7). Furthermore, emotions that somebody faced in the past because of an event might not be correctly memorised and recalled within a current coaching conversation (Sims, 2017). As emotions are always personal feelings there is the danger that emotions relayed to the listener may be understood and interpreted subjectively (Duffell, 2015). According to Duffell, three approaches in relation to how emotions are seen within coaching are described. The first approach sees emotions as ignorable, unhelpful and irrelevant for the coaching and therefore not being relevant because it is outdated. Within the second approach, emotions are defined as inconvenient and consequently need to be regulated. Through regulation, only those emotions which are relevant to the coaching object should be considered. The most followed approach in the literature is the third one, as part of which emotions need to be considered and analysed since awareness of them can be

supportive for the coaching success (Cox & Bachkirova, 2007; Cremona, 2010; Grant, 2016; Gyllensten, Palmer, Nilsson, Regnér, & Frodi, 2010).

According the third approach, attention has focused on the investigation of critical emotional moments within the coaching process (de Haan, 2008a, 2008b). As a result, critical moments are described as tense, exciting, or significant (de Haan et al., 2010). The results show that for both coach and coachee, critical emotional moments are characterised by joy, anxiety, or doubt (de Haan, 2008a, 2008b). However, a primary limitation of the studies is the interpretation of the interviewee's definition about what a critical moment is. In particular, asking a coach about a critical moment can result in them reciting their most critical moment, rather than all experienced critical moments (de Haan & Nieß, 2015). However, in the opinion of the researcher, bringing emotions from the background to the foreground can help in understanding the coachee's motivations and actions better, and hence be supportive in finding the best-fit coaching framework.

A study by Cox and Bachkirova (2007) with 39 coaches identifies the different ways coaches deal with coachees in the context of emotion. It is found that coaches use self-reflection or supervision to handle these situations while being aware of their own emotions. Furthermore, coaches actively explore the emotions of the coachee together with them during the coaching sessions instead of questioning or tackling them. Some of the coaches within this study replied that they suggest the coachee go to other colleagues, for example therapeutic coaches, when they notice the coachee's emotions. Additionally, in a study with nine executive coaches, Cremona (2010) identifies that coaches engage with emotions by asking the client for their physical experiences. Moreover, it is stated that the handling of emotions highly depends on the level of comfort the coach feels about that topic. It is therefore emphasised that coaches need to be specifically educated to deal with emotions.

It is crucial for the coach to be aware of the coaching framework used and how emotions fit into that. However, as both studies are solely executed by UK coaches it needs further research to see if sociocultural aspects would have any impact on the results (Cremona, 2010).

Even though emotion coaching is mentioned in literature within the context of the child-adult relationship, the author encourages the transfer of some key findings to the coaching relationship between a resistant employee and a coach. This is because it is assumed that the resistor takes over the role of the child as the attitude phenomenon is similar. With Emotion Coaching, a child's feelings of anger, fear, and resilience that lead to behaviour adaptation and survival willingness are handled (Gus, Rose, & Gilbert, 2015). Regarding the resistor, they want to hold the status quo without any change because then they already know what is required. If the status quo changes, there is unease about the future requirements the resistor may have to fulfil (Gottman et al., 1997, pp. 45–85; Gus et al., 2015). The following steps characterising emotion coaching: The first step addresses the awareness of the coach for the resisters' emotions in order to be able to develop a sensitivity to their feelings. The second step encourages the coach to recognise the feelings of the resistor as valuable and an opportunity (Gus et al., 2015). This perspective of resistance is recognised by other scholars, as described above in sub-section 2.2.1, and is often mentioned as a modern paradigm (Bareil, 2013). The third step asks the coach to listen carefully, see the situation through the eyes of the resistor, and reflect actively with the resistor. According to Gus et al. (2015), active reflection with the coachee can be done by rephrasing things heard. Further, the importance of this procedure is observable within the literature about resistance handling and links it to the importance of understanding the individual sense-making process (Ford et al., 2008; Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016). The fourth step focuses on assistance provided by coaches that helps the coachees to

express their feelings in words (Gus et al., 2015), however, exactly how this translation can be supported is not specified. The last step concentrates on solution finding; at this moment, the goals have to be identified, and the options for possible solutions need to be created and evaluated. Finally, the solution needs to be chosen (Gus et al., 2015).

In summary, the coach should be aware of the emotions of the coachee. Thus, it is essential that the coach actively recognises the emotions of the coachee as well as their own emotions. If coaches are aware of their own emotions, and feel competent in handling the emotions of the coachee, the choice of the coaching model and technique to be adopted in a coaching session can be improved.

2.3.3 External coaching and resistance in empirical studies

Empirical evidence that brings together external coaching and resistance to change of coachees is lacking, as described by Jim (2016) and in 1.1 and 2.1 of this study. However, recent systematic literature reviews enlighten the current status of empirical research in the field of coaching (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; Bozer & Jones, 2018; de Haan, 2019). All of them present associations between change and coaching, and indicate that resistance played a reasonably important role in the coaching process. To offer a comprehensive scope of this literature, the current sub-section summarises the state of the empirical research in the area of coaching and resistance with three main points.

First, it is demonstrated in the systematic review (n=101) conducted by de Haan (2019) that a friendly mood of a coach before the coaching can lead to measurable behaviour of the coach. These in turn cause a similarly friendly behaviour of the coachee, which leads to demonstrably better results in the coaching session. Important aspects in the coaching

process for both coaches and coachees are the ability to achieve a deep level of psychological reflection and understanding. Many important barriers were also examined, especially from the perspective of the coachees, for instance missing agreement on coaching objectives or lack of trust to the coach. This is underlined by the finding that coachees' acceptance of the coaching and their development of commitment and trust within the coaching process is important for the coaching outcome (de Haan, 2019).

Second, the majority of qualitative empirical studies in the systematic review of Bozer and Jones (2018) examine coaching motivation of coachees as an essential aspect. The findings suggest that the coaching motivation is a precursor to the results of coaching when assessed through the perspective of the coach, the coachee and HR professionals. Thereby, existing empirical studies (for example Rekalde, Landeta & Albizu, 2015) dealing with coaching motivation of coachees has focused on the phase before the coaching sessions. However, Bozer and Jones (2018) find that the positioning of coaching motivation as a pure precursor of the coaching process is simplified. They demonstrate that coaching motivation should be considered, additionally, during the coaching process, as well as an affective outcome. That means, although coaching is completed, it is emphasised that one focus of coaching is to encourage the coachee for a sustainable behavioural change through a learning outcome of the coaching process (for instance by Peterson, 1996). This implies a high degree of coaching motivation after the coaching has ended (Bozer & Jones, 2018).

Third, a systematic review (n=110) of Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) that is related to executive coaching delivered by external coaches underlines the pitfall of lacking acceptance from the coachee. Coaching requires organisational and individual commitment, taking into account the necessary resources and time required. Some coachees do not see the merit or value of coaching practices. It is highlighted that the

personal development of the coach should focus on dealing with resistance to coaching, as one of the main difficulties is to convince coachees of the importance of coaching for their work practice. In order to investigate what works according to existing empirical studies, various personal characteristics of a coachee are outlined. These attributes are mainly a positive attitude and openness to change. However, this result is derived with a focus about the outcome of executive coaching provided by external coaches. The review includes studies which were qualitative and quantitative in research approach.

In summary, the empirical literature on workplace coaching and resistance is underrepresented in existing research. However, there are several indications that resistance is an important issue when it comes to coaching change processes. This is the case specifically in the area of executive coaching where resistance is identified as a major obstacle to successful change, both for the executives to be coached and for the employees to be coached by the executives. In addition, commitment to coaching and motivation for change is identified as important when coaching takes place in the workplace. Both factors, commitment and motivation, are also considered as relevant to the approaches for dealing with resistance discussed in 2.2.5.

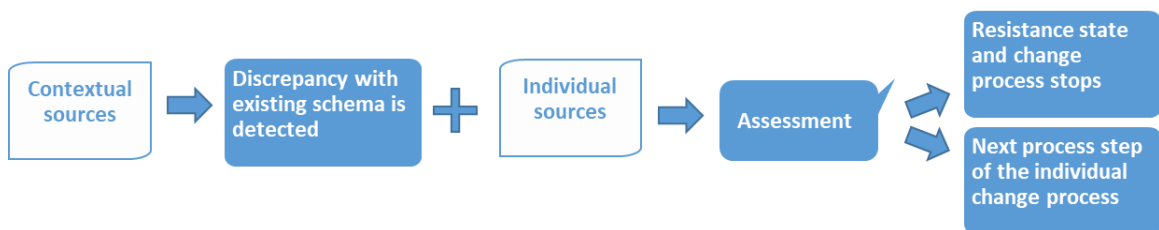
The next sub-section follows up on the research rationale of this thesis and outlines why external coaching can be an approach to deal with resistance to change.

2.3.4 External coaching as an approach to successfully dealing with resistance

Resistance is one feature of the human cognitive structure and an omnipresent and complex phenomenon. Its function and result do not necessarily aim to prevent the appearance of the new. Nor is resistance simply a negative psychological reaction aimed at

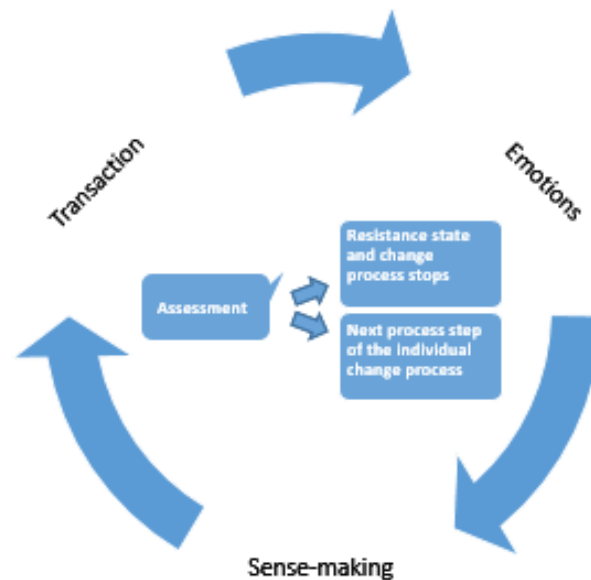
avoiding change at all. Depending on the situation, resistance can also serve as a balancing mechanism between exploration and preservation, as a stimulation for creativity or as an instrument of rationality (Patalano, 2011). Resistance could occur during the change process of an individual as presented in figure 7.

Figure 7: Condensed concept of the individual change process (as explained in 2.2.1 and 2.2.3)



Thereby, discrepancies realised based on contextual sources can be seen as initial trigger of a change process (George & Jones, 2001). With regard to this thesis, that means, workplace events may result in a discrepancy to an individual schema. That is, in order to perform a change an individual must modify their schema which is exposed to cognitive, affective, and behavioural influences. Within this change process the individual comes to different assessments that allows to go forward in the process or to get a resistance state. These individual assessments within the different process steps are influenced by individual sources, such as habits and values, and can either lead to the next process step or to resistance and a halt of the change process.

Within an individual change process the dependence on emotion and cognition of an individual is decisive (George and Jones, 2001). As shown in figure 8 on the following page, the emergence of resistance to change and resistance to change itself in this process is an interplay of emotions, sense-making and transactions by an individual and is therefore influenced by each of these elements.

Figure 8: Resistance to change and its involving elements

Schutte and Steyn (2015) demonstrate evidence that coaching is a cognitive and emotional affected method that aims to strengthen and increase the awareness of cognitive and emotional processes of individuals, respectively of coaching clients. As a result, coaching can contribute to the emotional aspect of resistance. By exploring critical moments in coaching de Haan et al. (2010) identify that within a coaching session, coaches help coachees look beyond their current solutions and mind-sets to gain new insights and support them in their learning. Hence, coaching contributes to the sense-making process of a coachee. Furthermore, coaching does not only provide a space for reflection and reassurance, but also creates the feeling in the coachee that he can concentrate on reflection and change and is supported by the coach (de Haan et al., 2010). Therefore, coaching can contribute on transactions of emotions and sense-making to a change in

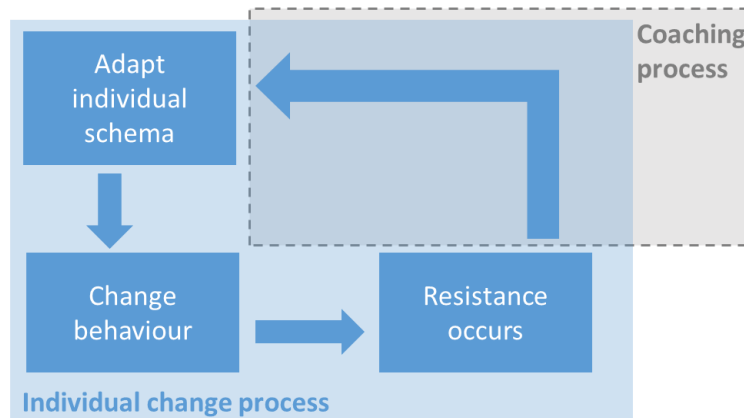
behaviour and thinking. A detailed explanation of the understanding and the definition of coaching and the coaching process can be found below in section 2.3.

In summary, coaching is an approach to manage individual emotions, cognitions and to support a coachee to reflect and actively go beyond the individual existing paradigm. Individual resistance to change is based on individual assessments that are influenced by emotions, cognition, and is often contradictory to an existing paradigm. Consequently, coaching may contribute to successfully deal with resistance, and therefore the second part of the literature review elaborates on the literature within the field of coaching starting in 2.5.

2.4 Conceptual framing of this research

The research rationale of this study aims to investigate to what extent external coaches can help individuals to effectively deal with changes in the working environment. Therefore, the main research question is: How can external coaching contribute to successful change management initiatives with regards to change resistance?

Based on the presented literature review in sections 2.2 and 2.3, and the research objective the conceptual framing of this thesis is developed as presented in figure 9 on the following page.

Figure 9: Conceptual framing of this thesis

The individual change process is a main part in this conceptual framing (see figure 9). The individual change process is an emotionally charged process. These emotions have a decisive influence on the commitment to the change, its effectiveness and the expectations with regards to the change results (Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016). The individual change process is therefore explained as a process of emotions that leads to affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions among the change recipients (George & Jones, 2001). The process is started because the change represents a discrepancy to the individual schema and this discrepancy provokes emotions in the change recipient. As a result, resistance to change could be created. A detailed explanation is given in sub-sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.3. It is also explained that resistance can be overcome if the individual is able to adapt his or her schema. The adaptation of the schema leads to a change in the individual's behaviour and ultimately to the initially required change (George & Jones, 2001).

The coaching process is the second part of the conceptual framing as coaching could be a suitable approach to dealing with resistance (see sub-section 2.3.3). Coaching is, like individual change, also understood as a process (Du Toit, 2011). Coaching is characterised as a one-to-one relationship that develops individual potential and improves performance

by a behavioural change through learning (Passmore, 2016, p. 12). In addition, it defines goals and objectives, and helps a coach to find out how the coachee feels, and behaves, what he thinks and how he works (Bachkirova, 2015).

To investigate whether coaching can support the successful handling of resistance to change, there is an overlap between the individual change process and the coaching process. The coaching is positioned in the individual change process between the occurrence of resistance and the adaption of the individual schema in the conceptual framing of this research. The part of the coaching process that does not overlap with the individual change process represents the environment, thoughts and feelings of the coach that are not directly linked to the ongoing individual coaching process. In the following research, the conceptual framing is taken up and is regularly investigated (see sections 4.4 and 5.5) to what extent the new research results can be classified within it or how they affect it.

Next, the research questions are developed in order to elaborate on the conceptual framing and the main research objective of this study.

2.5 Development of the research questions

As outlined above, the individual change process has been well researched, in addition to general aspects of coaching. However, hardly any literature is available that investigates the associations between coaching and change resistance (Jim, 2016). Nevertheless, coaching may contribute to successfully deal with resistance as explained in detail in sub-section 2.3.4. While some research is available about the effectiveness of coaching based on case studies performed in specific industries and coaching styles, there is very little research

available which explicitly focuses on linking the individual change resistance with the involvement of external coaches (Bozer & Jones, 2018; Greif & Benning-Rohnke, 2015b; Grover & Furnham, 2016; Kołodziejczak, 2015). Moreover, these industry-specific studies are partly published by consulting firms, who could arguably be challenged regarding their scholarly background.

Overall, research into the success of using external coaches in facilitating change is predominantly linked on the overall increase in effectiveness of the organisation rather than on the individual change, and the link to particular situations and frameworks like the individual change resistance is insufficient (McDermott, Levenson, & Newton, 2007). Additionally, even where research into coaching does exist, it often focuses to top management levels, with external coaching frequently being used for executive coaching (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; Finkelstein, 2016; Soebbing, Wicker, & Weimar, 2015). However, its use with middle and low-level managers is much less.

This leaves an increasingly relevant management practice during change processes, namely external coaching, and its relationship to a longstanding core topic of change management, namely resistance, barely understood. For both scientifically understanding management practice and for improving change management practice via coaching, it is important to better understand coaching and its link to resistance. The research for this study, therefore, seeks to address the research gap by answering its research sub-questions.

Recapitulating the four research sub-questions to support the clarification on the central research question, the following aspects can be stated after completing the literature review on the topics of individual change resistance and external coaching:

Recent literature does not define the term “resistance” consistently. Instead, it is defined as a cognitive state, as behaviour, or as an emotional state. Additionally, there is a dissension about whether resistance is positive because it can bring positive effects to a change or whether it slows an individual’s change down. Thus, it needs an empirical investigation of how coaches understood resistance to change that is expressed with RQ1:

RQ1: What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?

As approaches how change resistance is experienced by external coaches are dependent on the understanding of resistance, they remain elusive as well. Therefore, these sense-making approaches based on resistance definitions and associated indicators, need to be empirically investigated with RQ2:

RQ2: How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?

Furthermore, while some approaches to deal with resistance are mentioned, these findings mainly relate to change leaders and managers in general, and are not specific to external coaches. Hence, the approaches conducted by external coaches need to be evaluated by empirical research involving external coaches as study participants (also referred to as interviewees and practitioners, as appropriate for participants in this study) as outlined in RQ3.

RQ3: How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?

Finally, even though coaching success factors are identified, the focus on coaching in the context of resistance is missing. It therefore needs to be investigated if these general findings can be transferred to the coaching context of resistance which is done by RQ4:

RQ4: What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?

In summary, all four research sub-questions cannot be solely answered by the results of the existing literature. Thus, this chapter has identified a gap in the literature in the field of external coaching and resistance. The following chapter therefore outlines the research design implemented to identify answers to the research question (and sub-questions) and addresses the research deficit in this field.

3 Research design

This chapter begins with explaining the philosophical position of the researcher, and the approach taken when addressing the research needs. It then moves on to consider the research strategy; describing the methodology, data collection method, time horizon, sampling design, and data access. Next, it provides an overview of the data analysis process. This chapter then concludes with outlining the compliance and ethical issues which were considered when undertaking this research, and therefore considers all aspects of the research design.

3.1 Research philosophy and approach

Critical realism was adopted in this study because it best fits the researcher's philosophical position in the area of the research subject. In general, each philosophical position is based on specific assumptions about ontology, epistemology, and axiology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mittwede, 2012). Therefore, these three assumptions are discussed, with regards to critical realism, in the following sections.

First, this section considers ontology which describes the view of the researcher about the social world and the position of people linked to that world. Second, it looks at epistemology which involves the aspects that constitute the knowledge that is acceptable to the researcher. Third, it covers axiology which provides the view of the researcher about the role of values within a research project (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 19; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016, pp. 127–128). The conducted philosophical position of critical realism is distinguished by the researcher's position of ontology, epistemology, and axiology.

The ontological position influences the view and research of the research objects. Research objects—in the context of management and business study research—usually refer to organisations, people, and their individual's behaviour. As part of this study, the research objects are coaches, coachees, coach educators, and their behaviours. Research objects are commonly established within an environment of organisational change because the ultimate purpose of coaching is the transformation of the coachee. Therefore, research in the field of change management has a long history. An extensive (and growing) body of literature posits that a change initiative is characterised by several aspects, including different phases and change participants (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Atkinson, 2014; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). Additionally, there is a large volume of published work that discusses the importance of organisational change for several purposes, such as adjustment due to the continuously evolving business environment (By, 2005; Finkelstein, 2016; Harmon, 2014). In fact, coaches work for organisations to support them in their change projects and initiatives (Bennett & Bush, 2013, chapter 9.4; Jim, 2016). Consequently, the ontological assumption of one existing reality could fit with this study.

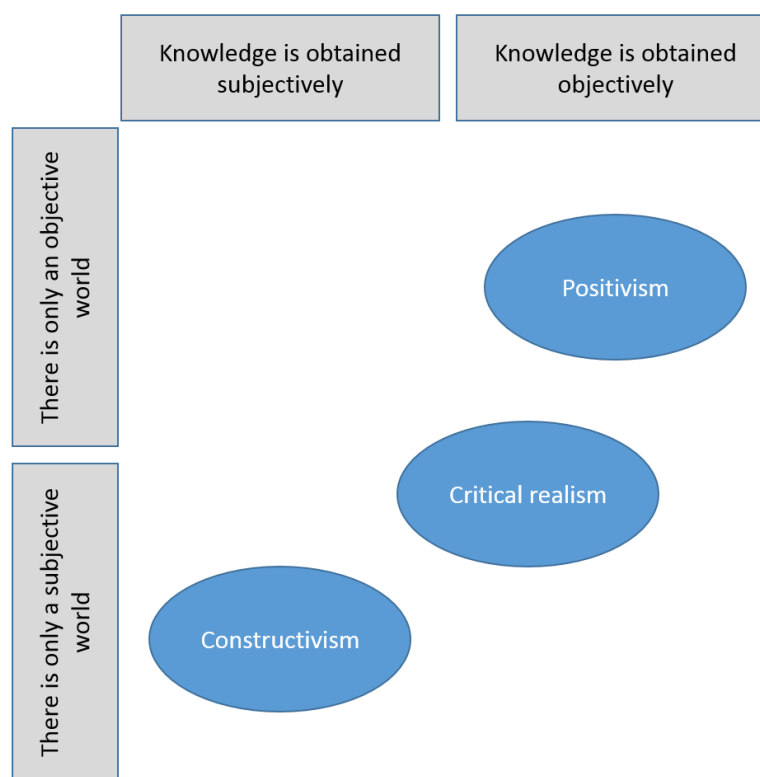
However, academic literature about change resistance reflects the discourse about how individuals' resistance to change is acknowledged (García-Cabrera & García-Barba Hernández, 2014; Harakas, 2013). A notable example is the discussion about the traditional and modern paradigm as introduced in sub-section 2.1.1. According to this discussion, change resistance can either be described as a rejection that needs to be reduced or as a chance that can improve the change by the provision of valuable feedback (Bareil, 2013). With consideration of the different change resistance literature, ontology can be adopted by a constructed and subjective reality. Due to the fact that the primary research object of this study is the handling of resistance, rather than the change initiative, the ontological position is indicated by more than one reality.

To determine the epistemological position of the researcher, the research objective and the existing literature were considered. This study aims to explore the patterns and meanings of how individual's change resistance can be handled by coaches and coach educators. To date, there are no facts or general knowledge base in the literature on how to deal with resistance to change that prove a cause-effect relationship on a measurable and quantified basis. Moreover, the literature highlights several soft factors which influence individual's resistance such as the attitudes, values, and emotions of the resistor (Blankenship, Wegener, & Murray, 2015; Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016; Jost, 2015). However, in the field of coaching some authors have established considerable dependencies. For example, trust between the coach and coachee has a positive impact on the coach-coachee relationship (Ben-Gal & Tzafrir, 2011; Ianiro et al., 2013). Likewise, a trustworthy relationship is described in the literature as a success factor for a successful coaching (Lai & McDowall, 2014) and may therefore also apply to coaching in the context of resistance. This study focuses on exploring how the handling of individuals' resistance has been, and is done, by external business coaches in practice and how this can be improved in the future. Hence, an epistemological relativism was adopted as the findings are both influenced by socially constructed aspects such as individual attitudes that influence resistance, and based on historical causal explanations such as a trustworthy relationship can increase the coaching success.

The axiological position of the researcher followed emancipatory axiology. This indicates that the researcher is aware of individual bias, as influenced by the experience and education of research participants (Easton, 2010). The awareness of bias is essential as the research findings build upon subjective meanings and patterns of the coach educators and coaches. However, the researcher remains as objective as possible and aims to minimise such bias.

For a more in-depth understanding of the choice of critical realism in this research, it is helpful to discuss the consequence of the two extremes of methodological philosophy: positivism and constructivism. The matrix in figure 10 underlines differences between all three philosophical positions regarding their ontological and epistemological views.

Figure 10: Philosophical positioning matrix based on Guba and Lincoln (1994)



Critical realism is a pragmatic compromise between the extreme positions of positivism and constructivism (Fletcher, 2017). Positivists see the world as external and objective, only driven by natural laws and mechanisms. As part of this, the researcher must be independent of the research object without being driven by any values or bias (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Often, a positivist research position indicates a quantitative research methodology and measures correlation between different variables (Mittwede, 2012). However, positivism is

not considered as the most appropriate methodological position in here because this study focuses on the identification of essential influencing factors for resistance and the exploration of coaching practices. Nevertheless, since the researcher intends to see the world as objectively as possible, there are similar ontological aspects between a pure positivist research approach and the adopted research approach in this study. In contrast to positivism, constructivism builds upon a personal and socially constructed worldview of the researcher where the researcher and the research object are closely linked together. While the epistemological aspects can be shared with the position of the critical realist researcher, the interpretation of research results might be too broad and creative (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus, constructivism is more appropriate for entirely new research topics that aim to show the complexity of the research object. This study mainly focuses on the interpretation of clarifying the theoretical knowledge and business practices that are already existing, reducing the complexity and increasing the understanding of interrelations between theory and business practice.

In summary, critical realism focuses on finding explanations about observable sensations, underlying mechanisms and causes, for example, within the complex interactions of roles and behaviour (Luke & Bates, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016, pp. 136–140). For example, critical realism is employed to achieve a causal understanding of IT associated organisational change processes (Volkoff & Strong, 2013). Thus, critical realism is adopted because the interplay between various structures, and among structures and actions are essential. Hence, the focus of a critical realism research *“is on the relationships between the various components”* (Volkoff & Strong, 2013). Transferred to this study, the focus is the relationship between the two components of resistance and external coaching, particularly in relation to investigating their combination. Thereby, roles and behaviours of the resistor,

the coach, and their environment are analysed to identify the mechanism and sources of resistance.

Following critical realism, the abductive approach is applied in this study. An abductive approach combines aspects of the deductive and inductive approach (Niiniluoto, 2017, pp. 9–20). Table 3 summarises distinctions between the three main research approaches and also outlines the rationale for applying an abductive approach in this thesis.

Table 3: Inference modes adapted from Danermark (2002, pp. 80–81)

	Deductive	Inductive	Abductive
Central question	What is the logical conclusion of the known premises?	What is the common element in the field research and is this generalisable?	What meaning is given to something interpreted within a framework?
Logical inference	The conclusion must be true if the premises are true.	The conclusion is not necessarily following the premises but can include additional knowledge.	Inference also involves conclusions that are influenced by underlying frameworks
Relationship between field research and literature review	Field data follows the theory.	Theory follows the field data.	There is a circular relationship.

The abductive approach builds up conclusions based on field data and underlying frameworks (Mabsout, 2015). Field data is linked to individual phenomenon observable to the researcher while underlying frameworks are related to non-observable aspects that are mentioned as re-contextualisation (Danermark, 2002, pp. 88–89). Through this re-contextualisation, new meanings are given to already known phenomena (Danermark, 2002, p. 91). As a result, new relations and connections are discovered and explained in a dedicated framework (Chiasson, 2005). In contrast, the deductive approach follows a strict

logical argument based on given premises (Adams, 2007, p. 28). One formalised example is: If all $A = B$ and $C = A$ then the conclusion must be $C = B$ (Danermark, 2002, pp. 82–83). As a result, the deductive approach is often used to test the validity of different variables and scientific concept, while the inductive approach builds up conclusions on something known (Jonker & Pennink, 2010, p. 142). Thus, using the inductive approach, the results of the study can be generalised (Danermark, 2002, p. 85). This generalisation can then be applied to study a larger number of participants, or to apply the results to a wider time horizon (Jonker & Pennink, 2010, p. 29).

An abductive approach is adopted in this study because it aims to find connections between external coaching and its influence on individual change resistance. The individual observable phenomenon is the response of the interviewees during data collection, which included responses to coaching, resistance, and their interfaces with one another. The underlying frameworks build the specific environment of the interview partners and their clients. At this moment, the frameworks can widely differ considering the organisational environment and the private environment of the coach and the coachee. However, these frameworks are not observable by the researcher as field data was gathered in an interview setting. Additionally, even though the researcher aims to have a neutral position; it cannot be rejected that the researcher's environment might influence data analysis, and is, therefore part of the underlying framework. Consequently, the deductive approach is not sufficient for this study as the research is rarely linked to a scientific environment, but more related to a social environment. Moreover, measurable variables that can be genuinely evidenced are hard to find. Therefore, the logical validity of the relation between premise and conclusion is not given. However, a central limitation of the inductive approach is that the generalisation builds upon the reality of the investigated sample and is not necessarily true for the generalised object. This limitation is the primary factor for this study in not

adopting a purely inductive approach. In fact, organisations are embedded in a dynamic and rapidly changing business environment. Moreover, organisations are operating in a multitude of branches and are characterised by several organisational cultures. It is consequently assumed by the author that change resistance and coaching occurs in all these different circumstances. Hence, a generalisation makes sense neither over time nor over the whole landscape of organisations and coaches.

Furthermore, the three approaches differ in their research process design. The abductive approach, which is applied in this study, combines the deductive and inductive approach. The deductive approach starts with a detailed review of the existing literature, develops research questions and then tests theory. Hence, during a deductive approach, the field data follows the theory (Jonker & Pennink, 2010, p. 94). In contrast, the inductive approach starts with field research to gain a better overview of the topic and its detailed aspects and challenges (Gill, Johnson, & Clark, 2010, p. 60). When the field research is completed a theory can subsequently be constructed based on its findings (Bryman & Bell, 2015, pp. 23–26). The abductive approach combines the deductive and inductive approach by testing theory and making observations through field research. The process can be repeated because, by testing the theory, further aspects might be observed and might enrich the starting theory which in turn needs to be tested again (Suddaby, 2006). The author believes that it was essential to gain an overview of the literature before the field research commenced as it was intended to conduct research with experienced practitioners in the field of change resistance and coaching. The author assumed it to be helpful to have a fundamental knowledge of the literature base in order to both be accepted as an interview partner, and to develop appropriate interview questions. Although the literature review explains the central concepts and theory of change resistance and coaching, the field research was performed by an open-minded researcher without testing any underlying

hypothesis. The choice of the data collection method is discussed in detail in sub-section 3.2.2.

3.2 Research strategy

3.2.1 Research methodology

This study used the model of Edmondson and McManus (2007), which focuses on the methodological fit in the field of management research, to select an appropriate research method. Three critical elements in Edmondson and McManus's model were distinguished: mature, intermediate, and nascent. These are presented in table 4 on the following page.

As outlined in the literature review, research in the area of resistance handling by external business coaching is currently very limited (Jim, 2016; Palmer & O'Riordan, 2012). Therefore, research in this management area is classified as nascent. Nascent theory is characterised as an emerging management area, where only insufficient research is existing, and research concentrates on the identification and analysis of new constructs about an interesting phenomenon. In addition, it relies on qualitative data to identify patterns that are relevant to the research objectives, and is consequently asking for a qualitative research method (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

Table 4: Research in mature, intermediate and nascent management areas (Edmondson & McManus, 2007)

Category	Mature	Intermediate	Nascent
Prior research focus	Existing theory	Existing theory and development of new relationships	Interests and new constructs
Prior collected data	Quantitative data	Quantitative and qualitative data	Qualitative data
Prior research method	Survey, observation, and interviews	Survey, observation, and interviews	Observation and interviews
Objective data analysis	Testing of hypothesis	Testing of propositions and constructs	Identification of patterns
Data analysis method	Statistical analysis	Exploratory statistic, preliminary tests, content analysis	Thematic/content analysis
Contribution to theory	Enhancement of existing theory	Provisional theory integrating prior research	Suggestive theory asking for further research

The choice of a qualitative research method for this study is underlined by Shah, Irani, and Sharif (2017), who identify that a quantitative approach is limited to the assessment of attitudes and patterns. However, in the opinion of the author, attitudes and patterns play a vital role in this research. Also, with regards to critical realism as the philosophical position of this study, a qualitative approach is outlined as an appropriate data collection method by several authors (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012).

Another argument for the choice of qualitative research is that the field of research for resistance to change was often examined on a quantitative basis, as shown in table 5 on the following page.

Most of existing research (as outlined in table 5) is undertaken with change participants that self-report their experiences and opinions. Hence, the current research lacks an external perspective on resistance to change. Therefore, the research of this thesis focus on external coaches and coach educators that are not involved in the respective change initiatives. Further description about the sampling of this research is provided in section 3.2.3.

This study chooses a qualitative research method as explained in sub-section 3.2.2. Furthermore, a thematic content data analysis was conducted focusing on pattern identification relevant to the research question. The expected theoretical contribution was to develop a suggestive theory that will be seen as an invitation for further research (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

Table 5: Research in the field of change resistance

Search term	Main content	Title	Author	Year	Research characteristics	Participant origin
Individual change AND resist*	Antecedent/precondition	Reciprocity and Resistance to Change: An Experimental Study	Krugel, J. P.; Traub, S.	2018	Experiment	Germany
Individual change AND resist*	Concept	Types of behavior in businesses and resistance to individual change	Şeneldir, O.; Akça, Ü.; Soydaş, H.; Aydın, S.; & Kudu, M.; Genel, Y.	2017	Secondary research	
Individual change AND resist*	Concept	On inertia: Resistance to change in individuals, institutions and the development of knowledge	Zantvoort, B.	2015	Secondary research	
Individual change AND resist*	Concept	Resistance to Change: Historical Excursus and Contemporary Interpretations	Patalano, R.	2011	Secondary research	
Individual change AND resist*	Antecedent/precondition	Individual difference predictors of perceived organizational change fairness	Xu, X.; Payne, S. C.; Horner, M. T.; & Alexander, A.L.	2016	Self-reports of change participants Questionnaire	USA One company operating in the food services branch
Individual change AND resist*	RTC scale	Developing an Individual Differences Measure	Oreg, S	2003	Questionnaire	USA
Individual change resistance AND business	Antecedent/precondition	The Effect of Affective Commitment, Communication and Participation on Resistance to Change: The Role of Change Readiness.	McKay, K.; Kuntz, J. R. C.; & Näswall, K.	2013	Self-reports of change participants Questionnaire	New Zealand and Australia Governmental organisations
Change resistance AND emotions	Antecedent/precondition	Individual's Resistance Regarding BPM Initiative: Case Study of the Insurance Company	Mirjana, P.B.; Vesna, B.V.; & Dalia, S.V.	2017	Questionnaire	Croatia One organisation
Individual change resistance AND psychology	Concept	Resistance to change: a social psychoogical perspective	Jost, J. T.	2015	Secondary research	
Change resistance AND emotions	Antecedent/precondition	Employee Interpretations of Change: Exploring the Other Side of the Resistance Story	Kulkarni, V.	2016	In-depth interviews with HR managers	India
Change resistance AND emotions	Antecedent/precondition	An Investigation of the Difference in the Impact of Demographic Variables on Employees' Resistance to Organizational Change in Government Organizations of Khorasan Razavi	Pakdel, A.	2016	Self-reports of change participants Questionnaire	Dubai Statistical sample in governance organizations
Change resistance AND emotions	Antecedent/precondition	Employees' emotions in change: advancing the sensemaking approach	Helpap, S.; Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, S	2016	Questionnaire	Germany One organisation
Individual change resistance AND meta analysis	Antecedent/precondition	Change Recipients' Reactions to Organizational Change: A 60-Year Review of Quantitative Studies	Oreg, S.; Vakola, M.; & Armenakis, A.	2011	Meta analysis of quantitative research	
Individual change resistance AND business	RTC scale	Emotional intelligence or personality in resistance to change? Empirical results in an italian health care context	Di Fabio, A.; Bernaud, J.; & Loarer, E.	2014	Self-reports of change participants Questionnaire	(Tuscany region) Italy
Individual change resistance AND business	Antecedent/precondition				Self-reports of change participants	
Individual change resistance AND business	RTC scale	Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change	Oreg, S.	2006	Mainly questionnaire	
Individual change resistance AND business	Concept	Towards a process model of individual change in organizations	George, J. M.; Jones, G. R.	2001	Secondary research	USA
Individual change resistance AND business	Antecedent/precondition	Change-specific cynicism as a determinant of employee resistance to change	Demirci, A. E.	2016	Questionnaire	Turkey Six organisations
Individual change resistance AND business	RTC scale	A Test of the Measurement Validity of the Resistance to Change Scale in Russia and Ukraine	Stewart, W. H., May, R. C., McCarthy, D. J., & Puffer, S. M.	2009	Interviews with Russian managers	Russian and Ukraine Two organisations

3.2.2 Data collection method

The aim of this study is to analyse whether—and how—external coaches can help individuals to handle changes in the workplace positively. Emphasis is placed on the investigation of dedicated indicators that show change resistance, of proper coaching approaches to handle resistance, and of the available coaching education in the field of resistance.

Based on the findings of the literature review, semi-structured interviews were conducted. This was the most promising data collection method because semi-structured interviews provide greater flexibility to respond to the interviewees' experiences and information; the interviewer can directly interact with the interviewee (Merriam, 2014, p. 169). The interview participants could be personally addressed in a highly flexible manner, and on a detailed level, by the interviewer asking for insights about their professional practice and experience in the field of change resistance (Kothari, 2004, p. 97). From the researcher's perspective, this was very important in order to reflect the broadest possible coaching approaches available for coping with change resistance, and the very sensitive topic of individual change constraints.

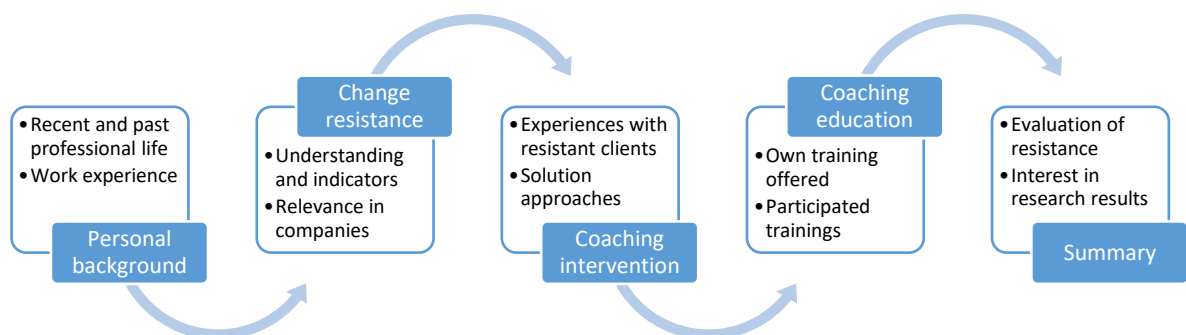
Initially, the target was to undertake face-to-face semi-structured interviews, but due to the participants' availability interviews were conducted by telephone. However, this was not considered to be an issue as evidence exists which suggests that data quality or the level of anxiety and stress of participants does not significantly differ between telephone and face-to-face interviews and that it is feasible to collect rich data via telephone interviews (Nandi & Platt, 2017; Zhang, Kuchinke, Woud, Velten, & Margraf, 2017). This is also underlined by the finding that the collection of rich data by telephone interviews is successful if there is a rapport between the interview participants, and if the interviewer shows responsiveness

and thoughtfulness about the interviewee (Drabble, Trocki, Korcha, Salcedo, & Walker, 2016).

The interviews were undertaken in German, as the interview participants are also German and carry out their profession in German. The interviewees were best able to speak in German about their work and also to express quotations from their working practice without having to think about translation issues. Possible language barriers could thus be avoided.

In accordance with the research objectives, the schedule for the semi-structured interviews was divided into five parts, as shown in figure 11 below.

Figure 11: Structure of the interview questionnaire



In the first part the participants were asked to outline their demographic and professional background. Following this, the second part investigated their understanding of individual resistance. By that, participants were asked about the indicators of resistance because the researcher suggested this could help them to identify resistance in coachees. The focus of the third part related to the experience of the interviewees with regards to resistance in coaching assignments. Thus, the interviewees were asked about typical situations where resistance occurs, the behaviour of the coach in these situations, and about their coaching

approach for coping with individual resistance. The next part concentrated on the education of coaches in the field of resistance. As part of this, the interviewees were asked about their coaching education as well as the training offered by themselves. The last part of the schedule invited the interviewees to raise any other issue they evaluated as important in the field of coaching resistant clients. The details of the semi-structured interview questions can be found in appendix C.

The phase to perform the interviews lasted about eight weeks. During these eight weeks, the interview questions changed. This shows the abductive research approach, as the questions were sharpened both on the basis of the literature and the increasing number of interviews. An exemplary excerpt is shown in table 6.

Table 6: Exemplary development of interview questions over time

Original interview question based on the interview guide	Sharpened/ additional interview question
How do you recognise people's change resistance?	Are there special facial expressions and gestures by which you recognise resistance? What are typical postures that connect you with resistance? Are there any emotions that your coachees often encounter when they are in a resistance state?
Is change resistance positive or negative for you and why?	Do you evaluate change resistance, for example as something positive or negative?

The more interviews were conducted, the clearer it became that the interviewees perceived resistance to both facial expressions and gestures of the coachee. For this reason, the general question of how resistance is recognised was specified. In this way, it could be

ensured that the interviewees had thought about both categories. Without the specification, the interviewees might only have expressed their first and most obvious thoughts. Moreover, over time in literature it has been shown that change resistance is related to emotions because an individual change is an emotional process (George & Jones, 2001). For this reason, the question of emotions associated with resistance was added to the interview questions. Furthermore, literature research has shown that resistance is predominantly classified as positive or negative (Bareil, 2013). In the course of the interview, however, it turned out that the interview participants did not follow this contradictory paradigm. Therefore, the question was re-formulated in a slightly open wording.

In addition, the order of the questions has changed moderately over time. For example, the question for the evaluation of resistance has been moved forward from the summary part and was already asked in the change resistance part. Here, it was thematically connected to the concept question and it could be avoided that the interviewee might be influenced in their response by the interview process. Moreover, the conceptual question was placed before the question of the indicators of resistance. In the original interview guide this was the other way around. It turned out, however, that in the original question sequence the increasing number of interviews revealed that the interviewees had no additional answer than to describe their resistance understanding with indicators that were shown by a resistant coachee.

3.2.3 Time horizon, sampling design, and data access

This sub-section explains the time horizon, sampling strategy and data access in this semi-structured interview study.

There are two available time horizons: cross-sectional and longitudinal (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 200). The choice usually depends on the research objectives and questions. For this study, a cross-sectional time horizon is adopted. The cross-sectional horizon focuses on a specific point in time. One common objective of it is to explain relationships between several factors through different organisations. Often, survey techniques or qualitative research methods such as case studies or interviews are conducted as part of this. The other type of time horizon is longitudinal research where studies are performed over a period of time and are often used to explain developments and trends (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 200). However, guided by the research questions, this study required a wide range of experiences and beliefs, a requirement which was incorporated by interviewing individuals with professional experience in both external coaching and coach education. The research was less focused on identifying trends and developments and more on taking a snapshot of the current knowledge base of the interviewees. Hence, the research object was covered adopting a cross-sectional horizon.

There are two significant categories outlined in the literature about sampling design: probability sampling and purposive sampling. A randomly chosen sample distinguishes probability sampling out of a defined population (Kothari, 2004, pp. 59–66). However, the following paragraphs explain why a purposive sampling design was used in this study. Purposive sampling is characterised by a strategic selection of the sample units in their relevance to the research question. As purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method, the results do not allow generalisation of the research results to a population

(Kothari, 2004, pp. 59–66). However, Kothari adds that it is often not feasible to implement a probability sampling as the sampling frame—definition of the research population—cannot be precisely stated. Whereas quantitative research emphasises the use of probability sampling, qualitative research tends to be combined with purposive sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2015, pp. 428–429). In order to answer the research question and sub-questions of this study accurately, the aim was not to build up a theory that could be generalised to a wider context. Rather, the intention was first to provide insights into the research field that could subsequently be further developed by other scholars as part of their own studies.

According to Robinson (2014), there is a four-point approach when defining a qualitative purposive sampling design. The first point refers to the definition of the research population. At this moment, it is vital to establish exclusion and inclusion criteria to influence the extent of the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population. In the context of this study, the research population was selected using two inclusion criteria and one exclusion criterion. The two inclusion criteria are first, that participants must have working experiences in change management activities; and second, that participants must either work or have worked as a business coach educator and as a business coach for a minimum period of two years in both capacities. In relation to the exclusion criterion, the two years of working experiences as a business coach and as business coach educator must have been undertaken within the last 10 years to ensure timeliness of the collected data.

The second point includes the definition of the sample size, considering what is required and what is practically feasible. The range of the sample size is marked by an idiographic sample size at the one end and a nomothetic sample at the other end (Robinson, 2014). This study had an idiographic aim as different patterns and experiences were explored

through in-depth interviews which required an intensive analysis of each respondent. The definition of the sample size for this research followed the approach of data saturation. Thus, the minimum sample size and the number of additional interviews where no new aspects are identified is stated (Francis et al., 2010; Merriam, 2014, p. 54). For this study, the initial minimum sample size was 20 interviews. Previous research suggests a sample size between 12 and 30 to achieve saturation (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Saunders and Townsend's (2016) review of organisational and workplace research showed that the norm to achieve data salience and validity was between 15 and 60 interviews. It was estimated that an interview would take about one hour and that transcription would take four hours. A resulting time expenditure of 120 hours for interview execution and documentation was estimated to be feasible by the author. It was expected that 15 to 25 interviews would be performed before data saturation took place, after which the results of any additional interviews would not lead to any significant new findings. The number of additional interviews where no new aspects were identified was three and when the data collection was finalised, 21 interviews had been conducted. Thus, saturation took place after the eighteenth interview.

According to point three, the purposive sample strategy was selected (Robinson, 2014). Purposive sampling strategies are based on a sampling approach that considers specific aspects such as maximum variation, extreme or deviant cases, convenience, and typicality (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 159). With respect to the explorative character of this study, and the outlined inclusion and exclusion criteria for interview participants, the criterion sampling was the most appropriate purposive sampling strategy.

The fourth point is about sample sourcing that outlines how the research participants should be recruited to attend the research, and subsequently how the data access by the

researcher is safeguarded (Robinson, 2014). In relation to recruiting participants, a search of the internet was performed by the researcher that concentrated on identifying potential interview participants. This required consideration of the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The inclusion criteria stated that the interviewee must have working experience of change management activities, for example, the restructuring of a process in an organisation. Furthermore, they must either work or have worked as a business coach educator and as a business coach for a minimum period of two years. Following the exclusion criteria, the two years of working experiences as a business coach or as business coach educator must have been undertaken within the last 10 years to ensure timeliness of the collected data. During the internet research, the member lists of main coaching associations, for instance of the DVBC, were analysed to identify the appropriate interview participants. After identifying potential interviewees, they were invited to take part by the researcher via an e-mail which described the project and the project objectives (see appendix D). If there was no response, the potential interviewees were contacted again with a friendly reminder e-mail. Its objective was to clarify their willingness or otherwise. If the potential interviewees were interested, the date of the interview was discussed and confirmed. There was no use of posters, advertisement, or any previous study participants. Additionally, there were no payments, rewards, reimbursements, or compensation to the interviewees. However, at the end of the study, and following the individual interest of the interviewees, they were all offered a summary of the findings.

3.3 Data analysis method

As outlined in sub-section 3.2.1, thematic analysis was applied in this study. It was considered the most appropriate method for this research as it supports the identification,

analysis, and reporting of patterns for a given dataset (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 237). According to Braun and Clark (2006), four pre-decisions must be taken by the researcher before the thematic analysis is conducted. First, clarify precisely what a theme or a pattern is. There are several options discussed within the literature about possible factors leading to a theme; these include data frequency within one or all data cases, and the discussion length of a specific issue from one or more research participants (Meier, Boivin, & Meier, 2008). For this study, the leading indicator for marking an aspect as a theme was the relevance to the research question and its sub-questions. Whenever an aspect was promising to contribute to the research objective, it was installed as a theme regardless of its frequency or intensity within the dataset. This approach enabled the researcher to be flexible and to cover all mentioned patterns within the field research.

The second pre-decision relates to the extent of data description which when supported by themes can be done either entirely or partly. The complete or rich thematic description includes capturing all mentioned patterns within a dataset of themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A partly or nuanced thematic description was adopted in this study, capturing only particular patterns determined by the research objective.

The third pre-decision establishes the use of an inductive or a deductive thematic analysis. Inductive analysis is a bottom-up analysis, where themes are data-driven and independent from any predefined coding frames. Consequently, the identified themes are not necessarily linked to the research questions. The deductive approach is led by the focus on specific research objectives which can result in a narrower data description of the whole dataset, but also in a more detailed description of specific patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For this study, a deductive approach was selected because the objective was to develop a suggestive theory for the research question and sub-questions.

The fourth pre-decision is about epistemology. Braun and Clarke (2006) differentiate between essentialist and constructionist thematic analysis. Based on the explanation of the philosophical orientation of the researcher, as outlined in section 3.1, the essentialist thematic analysis—which is also mentioned in a realist direction—was adopted. At this moment, a straightforward link between meaning, language, and experience of the research participants was assumed. In contrast, the constructionist thematic approach underlines sociocultural and structural conditions, and considers latent information in interpreting data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).


In conclusion, themes in this study were defined by their relevance to the research question and sub-questions by using a nuanced data description, adopting a deductive analysis approach, and taking an essentialist epistemological position.

The researcher used the software NVivo for data analysis, therefore, the approach of Braun and Clarke (2006) was translated to the functionality and working steps of NVivo. NVivo is computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software that enables the retrieval and coding process to become more efficient, and faster, as compared to manual analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 607; Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 208–209). The whole process defined for this thesis consisted out of six phases and is summarised in table 7 on the following page.

The first phase focused on the familiarisation with the gathered data. To get the data required for the analysis, verbal data from the interviews were transcribed to written form. According to King and Horrocks (2010, pp. 143–144), transcription can be done either fully or partly. Within this study, even though the selected nuanced data analysis would allow a partial transcription, the complete transcription was performed. This is because the author shares the belief of some researchers that a complete transcription is very useful to get an

in-depth view of the data (Bird, 2005; Cook, 2009). After the transcription, the whole written dataset was imported to NVivo to enable its analysis.

Table 7: Data analysis approach—adapted from Braun and Clark’s (2006) theory of thematic analysis

Phases	Translation to NVivo	Outcome
1. Data familiarisation	Data import	Transcribed and understood data
2. Initial coding	One level coding of the whole dataset	High-level clustering of the whole data summarised in a conceptualised map
3. Theme search	Categorisation of codes	Identification of relevant themes regarding the research sub-question and creation of a thematic map
4. Theme review	Coding on 	Thematic map that reflects the overall story within the dataset, e.g. by building sub-themes of the relevant codes and further refinement of the codes
5. Theme definition	Further refinement of coding and detailed definition of code descriptions	Clear definition and description of every theme
6. Report generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generation of analytical memos - Testing and validation - Synthesis of analytical memos - Export of relevant data (e.g. memos) 	Finalised data analysis as a basis for the development of a suggestive theory

The second phase marked the first coding step. At that moment, a within case approach was applied (Ayres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003). The researcher went through all the interview datasets one by one and created an initial coding of ideas on how data could be

grouped meaningfully. Braun and Clark (2006) suggest coding not too narrowly, but rather to include some of the surroundings. This is supported by as King and Horrocks (2010, p. 153) a major critique of coding is that the context can be easily lost. For this study, the entire data set was analysed to capture all possible aspects referring to the research question. At the end of this phase, the dataset was organised in thematic clusters. To improve transparency, a conceptualised map was first created, such as that used by Frith and Gleeson (2004) and Ryan and Bernard (2000, pp. 769–802), which divided these clusters into groups. This map enabled the researcher to additionally identify inconsistencies, overlaps, and other relationships between the data clusters.

In the third phase, themes were built up. Therefore, the codes were sorted and assigned to different themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The results were used to create a thematic map. Here, a theme is defined as clearly linked to specific research sub-questions whereas codes represent a high-level data cluster. In order to minimize possible bias from the researcher the themes were discussed together with the thesis supervisors. The outcome of this phase was a thematic map that included all themes and their relevance to the research sub-questions.

The theme review was the fourth phase, and underpinned by the thematic map created in phase three. From now on, the researcher applied an across case approach because the entire dataset was now viewed based on the existing themes and coding structure, rather than each interview individually (Ayres et al., 2003). Two steps were conducted in phase four. The first step was to review each theme including all the codes and its collated data to verify the theme itself. If the theme represented a coherent pattern, the second step was performed. Each theme and its codes were reviewed to identify further sub-themes and refinements. This step aimed to produce a detailed and validated thematic map that

reflected all patterns in the entire dataset accurately (Braun & Clarke, 2006). If the first step resulted in a necessary change of a theme, phase three was repeated. As expected by the researcher, some recoding was required, therefore, phases three and four were outlined in table 7 as an iterative cycle.

The fifth phase included the theme refinement and definition. At the end of the phase, it was clarified what a theme and its sub-themes and refinements were about, and why they were attractive to the research objective. Therefore, for each theme, codes and linked data extracts were reviewed to formulate a description that set out its content and scope. Furthermore, the working titles of the themes were refined to create a concise and meaningful name (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The last phase was the reporting stage. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 23) explain this step as the write-up of the analysis that must be a *“concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the story the data tell”* that goes *“beyond description [...] and make[s] an argument about the research question”*. It is suggested that this report should be enriched with examples and data extracts to make the analysis outcome more transparent (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In NVivo, analytical memos are used to capture all relevant information and thoughts for each theme, such as embedding them into the literature or developing arguments by placing them into the storyboard (Houghton et al., 2017). Once the analytical memos were created, the researcher critically reviewed them for verification and validation purposes, for example, by a further look at the data extracts. When the memos were confirmed as valid, they were synthesised to get a supported set of findings. At this stage, several illustrations or graphs can be created that support the understanding of the data and arguments (Bryman & Bell, 2015, pp. 609–621). Lastly, this set was exported

to an appropriate file format (e.g. Excel or Word, depending on the type of information) to harmonise the findings and present the argument in this study.

As described in section 3.2.2, the interviews were performed in German. Consequently, in phase one, German interview transcripts were imported into NVivo. All developed themes and codes as well as the coded interview data were documented in English. In order to prevent possible translation errors, a third independent person was called in who had not previously been involved in the research of this thesis or the research topic in general. This third person has an academic background and is fluent in both languages. The person works in a German academic institution over 10 years and is a native English speaker. Randomly selected interview transcripts with the corresponding themes, codes and the coded interview data translated into English were presented to this person. This sample comprised one third of the interviews conducted. In this way, the quality of the development of the themes, codes and translation was validated.

3.4 Compliance and ethical considerations

This study was completed with consideration of the University of Portsmouth policies on ethics and research data management. This research conforms to the Concordat to Support Research Integrity, the Research Councils UK policy, and the Guidelines on Governance of Good Research Conduct. This means that the researcher complied with, and followed, all the guidelines for the promotion of ethical research conduct including integrity, appropriate research design and frameworks, the highest level of research ethics, and ethical approval procedures. Furthermore, this study avoided any unacceptable research conduct including fabrication, falsification, plagiarism, misrepresentation, and breach of the duty of care. The

research was therefore performed with the highest level of honesty, rigour, transparency, care, and respect for all interviewees.

However, several anticipated ethical issues and risks concerning data collection were considered upfront of this study. First, there was no opportunity for collusion between interviewees or manipulation of interviewees by a third party as there were no group interviews and each request for participation was addressed directly to the potential interviewee. Second, one risk was the use and disclosure of information with sensitive data by a third party. Within the semi-structured interviews, verbatim quotes were included and analysed by the assignment of a dedicated coding. Each interviewee was assigned an alias to maintain anonymity. However, the interviewees were asked for consent being aware that there is a risk of identification when using verbatim quotes in publications even though no sensitive data was listed. Thus, participants consent for the semi-structured interviews was gained before the interview. Moreover, all interviewees agreed to the recording process and gave their verbal consent to it before the interview started. Third, there was no collection of sensitive personal data, for instance relating to issues such as ethnicity or religion, during the semi-structured interviews. Interviewees and companies were not mentioned by name either in the thesis or any publication relying on the research findings. Fourth, the interviewees did not get a direct, or any other kind, of benefit that might influence their decision to take part; except the sharing of the results of the research. Fifth, there was no dependent relationship either between the interviewees and the researcher, or any subordinate relationships between the interviewees.

Finally, all interviewees were contacted after the ethical approval was granted by the Ethical Committee with the Ethics Committee Reference E463. The confirmation letter from the Ethical Committee is included in appendix A.

4 Findings and analysis

This chapter presents the analysis of the collected data. Data has been gathered through semi-structured interviews, and has been analysed by using a thematic analysis. The chapter begins with describing the interviewee profiles before moving on to explain the theme coding of the interviews. It continues by investigating the interviewee responses based on the conducted coding and elaborates empirical insights the study offers. The chapter concludes with the integration of the findings in the conceptual framing.

4.1 Participants' demographic backgrounds

This research interviewed 21 participants (n=21), including 10 females (n=10) and 11 males (n=11). All of the participants were acting as professional coaching practitioners in business and had more than two years' experience during the research period. Of these, 10 participants (n=10) additionally had roles as business coaching educators for training programmes.

Out of the 21 interviewees, 20 of them hold a university degree. Their scholarly backgrounds are as extensive as their professional backgrounds. The interviewees have a total of 17 scholarly and 26 professional backgrounds. The scholarly backgrounds are, for example, marketing, management, medicine, teaching, finance and adult education. The coaching educators are the most experienced coaches within this study, with over 20 years' work experience in the coaching area. Independently from coaching experiences, their coaching clients come from a variety of branches and different company sizes. Further details about

the demographic and educational background experiences of the interviewees are shown in appendix E.

After the presentation of the demographic backgrounds of the interview participants, the next section provides an overview of the data analysis, especially in relation to the defined codes and themes.

4.2 Theme coding

The interview data recordings were fully transcribed and subsequently uploaded to NVivo for further analysis. Following the data analysis method outlined in section 3.3, the data analysis steps are presented in the current section and the essential themes are identified.

4.2.1 Identification of thematic clusters

An initial coding was conducted to identify thematic clusters that were relevant to the main research question (see section 3.3). Subsequently, the researcher sorted these thematic clusters into groups relevant to the research topic. A total of five groups and their clusters were distinguished, as shown in table 8 on the following page.

Table 8: High-level clustering of interview data grouped to a conceptualised map

<u>Groups</u>	Miscellaneous	Resistance	Coaching	Coaching resistance	Training
<u>Thematic cluster</u>	Background of interviewees	Term of resistance	Selection of a coach	Approaches to work with resistance	Training content
		Context of resistance	Process of the coaching	Approach of the coach in case the coachee does not want the coaching	Training participants
		Resistance sources	Self-development of the coach	Recognition of resistance by the coach	Training content of own training offerings
			Self-image of the coach	Resistance evidences on the coachee side	Potential for resistance training
			External coaches		

4.2.2 The thematic map regarding the research sub-questions

The next phase of the data analysis consisted of theme identification and assignment to the research sub-questions. Therefore, the researcher reviewed the data sorted to the thematic clusters (presented in sub-section 4.2.1), and coded themes that promised to be relevant for the research sub-questions and did not overlap with each other. In total, 16 themes were identified and assigned to the research sub-questions according to their relevance in answering the dedicated sub-question. The results are presented in table 9 on the following page.

Table 9: Thematic map of interview data

Research sub-questions	What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?	How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?	How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?	What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?
Themes				
Understanding of resistance	X	X	X	X
Recognition of resistance	X			
Indicators of resistance	X			
Situations where resistance occurs	X		X	
Causes for resistance	X		X	
Rejection of the coach and its reason	X		X	
What a coach does if the coachee is sent by a third person and does not want to be coached			X	
What a coach does if the coachee is resistant to the topic			X	
Success factors of coaching with an emphasis on the coach and the coach-coachee relationship				X
What coaches do to improve their work				X
How coaches see themselves		X		X
What coaches learned about resistance and where they learned it?		X		
Participants of their own training offerings		X		
How the coach educators teach resistance		X		
Are external or internal coaches better suited for coaching of resistant employees?			X	
Is there a need to have a dedicated training offering for resistance?		X		

For example, the research sub-question about success factors to manage change resistance is covered by the following five themes: “Information about participants”, “Definition of resistance”, “Success factors of coaching with an emphasis on the coach and the coach-coachee relationship”, “What coaches do to improve their work”, and “How coaches see themselves”.

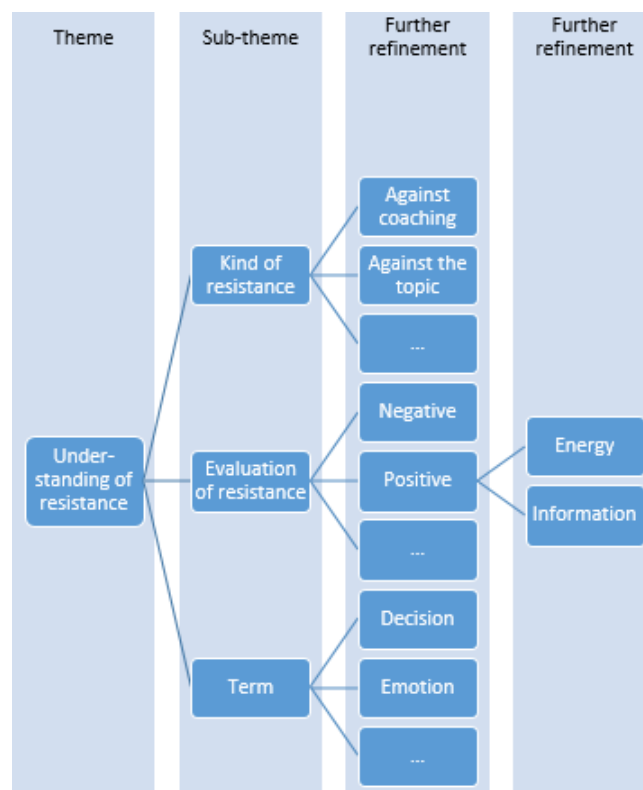
All research sub-questions are covered by at least one theme as presented in table 9. Hence, every research sub-question is addressed within the interview data.

4.2.3 Identification of sub-themes

In the next step of data analysis, the researcher reviewed the identified themes and analysed them further for refinement. As a result, several sub-themes and refinements were recognised that enhanced the clarity of the coding structure, and thus supported the researcher in the analysis of the findings.

One example of the identified sub-themes and further refinements is shown in figure 12. A detailed overview of all the identified sub-themes is included in appendix F.

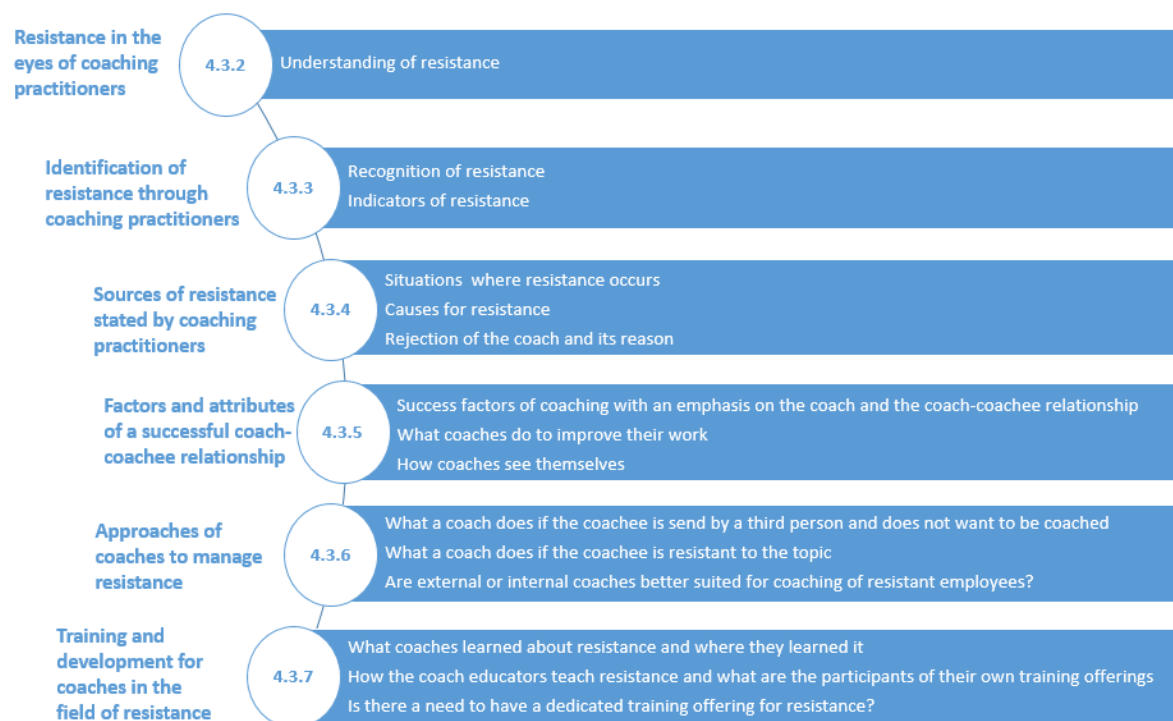
Figure 12: Example of a theme, its sub-themes, and refinements based on the theme "Understanding of resistance"



4.3 Analysis of interview responses

The structure for this section follows a logical combination of themes according to their contents. Thereby, all 16 themes of the thematic map (outlined in sub-section 4.2.2) were presented in seven sub-sections (see 4.3.1–4.3.7). An overview of the themes explained in each sub-section is displayed in figure 13. Of note is that the interview responses could not be directly sorted to one research sub-question because some themes are relevant for more than one research sub-question. For example, the understanding of resistance influences all research sub-questions.

Figure 13: Logic of the structure of section 4.3 with regards to the themes



In summary, this section provides an overview of the interview responses; starting with the understanding, identification, and sources for resistance. It continues by outlining the role

of coaching when dealing with resistance. It concludes with the opinions of the interview participants about the current and possible training and development offer in the context of coaching resistant employees.

4.3.1 Summary of findings from the interviews with coaching practitioners

In this sub-section, a summary of findings of the qualitative data gathered via semi-structured interviews with 21 coaching practitioners is presented. The findings are outlined in tables 10–13, sorted into resistance, coaching, coaching resistance, and training.

Table 10: Findings for sub-themes related to resistance

Resistance	
Understanding of resistance	Recognition and indicators
Two kinds of resistance were outlined: resistance to the coaching topic and resistance to the coaching itself. Thereby, various definitions were given by the interviewees. The majority of the interviewees evaluated resistance as something that usually comes up in their coaching processes.	Several indicators were identified by the interviewees that affect the body, the emotion, and the behaviour of the coachee. Indicators most often mentioned were typical statements and the bearing of the coachee. The interviewees also reported being able to recognise resistance by, e.g. intuition.
Sources and provoking situations	
Individual sources and assignment contexts of the coaching were described as sources of resistance. The most reported individual source of resistance was the rejection of the coach itself, predominantly because of the behaviour of the coach. Contexts of coaching assignments leading to resistance were, for example, team conflicts or structural changes within the organisation.	

Table 11: Findings of sub-themes related to coaching

Coaching	
<p>Success factors of coaching with an emphasis on the coach and the coach-coachee relationship</p> <p>The interviewees stated several success factors that emphasise a successful coach-coachee relationship. Regarding the coach-coachee relationship, the importance of trust was underlined by the majority of interviewees. Furthermore, the personal and professional competencies of the coach and an open mind of the coachee were described as supportive.</p>	<p>Coaches' self-image and self-development</p> <p>The interviewees pointed out that they usually tried to help the coachee in finding their way to work with the dedicated situation. Thereby, they stated that the solution for the coaching reason is developed by the coachees itself. In addition, the majority of the interviewees increase their self-development regularly by working on their attitude and understanding their own inner set up. This was often done by supervision.</p>
<p>Are external or internal coaches better suited for coaching of resistant employees?</p> <p>Half of the interviewees stated that it is more difficult for internal coaches than for external coaches to successfully deal with individual change resistance of coachees in an organisation.</p>	

Table 12: Findings of sub-themes related to coaching resistance

Coaching resistance	
<p>What a coach does if the coachee is sent by a third person and does not want to be coached</p> <p>The majority of the interviewees, faced that situation, explained that they had rejected the coaching assignment. Interviewees, who coached in situations of resistance to the coaching itself, mentioned that the most effective approach to deal with it is to directly ask the coachee for the reason and for further opportunities to solve their resistance.</p>	<p>What a coach does if the coachee is resistant to the coaching topic</p> <p>The interviewee stated to make the coachee feeling comfortable by setting up a convenient environment and bringing the coachee in a relaxed mood. Furthermore, some tools and techniques for the coach were identified that could be supportive, for example, to work with scenarios in order to build up awareness of the coachee for new and future situations.</p>

Table 13: Findings of sub-themes related to training in the field of resistance

Training	
<p>What coaches learned about resistance and where they learned it?</p> <p>There was no single answer identified through the interviews what coaches learn and where. In fact, coaches learned in several ways how they can deal with resistance. They learned from experiences, several kind of trainings or by the dialogue with their colleagues and supervisors.</p>	<p>Participants in the training offerings provided by the interviewees</p> <p>There were four main groups of participants nominated by the interviewees: people who work or plan to work as a coach, people working in a business that wanted to implement coaching elements in the job, managers in business, and people that worked in areas with a high amount of consultancy elements</p>
<p>How the coach educators teach resistance</p> <p>The teaching mentioned by the interviewees covered several techniques and models from different coaching approaches. However, there was a unanimous agreement between the interviewees that case studies and the collection of practical experiences by the training participants during the training are the most important ones.</p>	<p>Is there a need to have a dedicated training offering for resistance?</p> <p>Eight of the interviewees stated that they could not determine the requirement of dedicated training about resistance. They pointed out that resistance is just one part of the change process and cannot be addressed separately. Further eight interviewees found it useful to have a specific training offering for resistance.</p>

In the following sections the findings are presented in detail. Figure 14 on the following page shows how these sections are linked to the research sub questions.

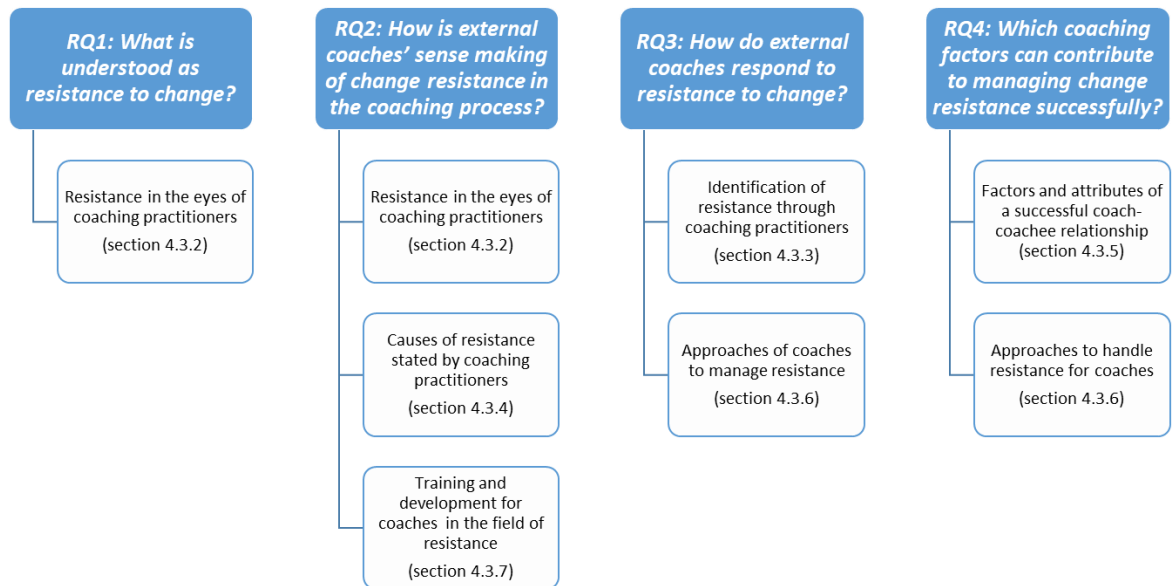
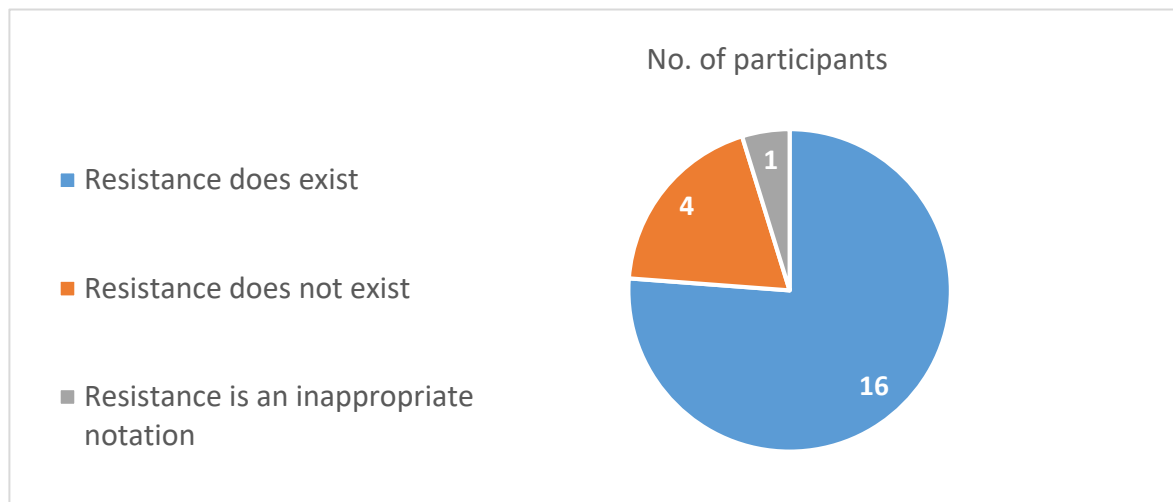
Figure 14: Findings sections sorted to research questions by their relevance

Figure 14 above shows that some of the findings sub-sections are relevant for more than one research sub-question. For example, the understanding of coaching practitioners about resistance is relevant to the research sub-questions one and two. Therefore, the structure of the findings sections cannot be clearly arranged according to the research sub-question, but is oriented towards the identified themes.

4.3.2 Resistance in the eyes of coaching practitioners

The interviewees (N=21) had a very different understanding of resistance. However, their responses can be clustered into three groups: resistance does exist, resistance does not exist, and resistance is an inappropriate notation, as shown in figure 15 on the following page.

Figure 15: Classification of resistance by practitioners

A total of 16 interviewees ($n=16$) stated that resistance exists, but in a variety of ways. The most frequent perspective—mentioned by four interviewees ($n=4$)—was that resistance occurs if one person wants to do something but the other not. For example, some interviewees specified that resistance is a response of the coachee to the behaviour of the coach.

“In general, resistance is produced by the coach...Depending on which relationship offer is made [by the coachee] to the coach, and if the coach reacts wrongly, then he creates resistance” (Interviewee 8).

“Resistance is that something is countered to what the coach sees as reasonable” (Interviewee 17).

Furthermore, resistance is seen by three interviewees ($n=3$) as closely linked to emotions.

“They call ... [resistance a] disturbance feeling” (Interviewee 14).

“Resistance is usually something emotional, which triggers a topic” (Interviewee 4).

“And, as a rule, feelings are always involved ... because there is a change” (Interviewee 12).

An overview of further understandings of resistance offered by the interviewees is presented in table 14 on the following page.

Additionally, resistance was often described based on possible reasons such as *“resistance helps to preserve what is worth preserving” (Interviewee 8)*, or resistance came up because a new topic was addressed during the coaching session.

Moreover, the interviewees differentiated between two kinds of resistance. The first kind is that there can be resistance to the coaching itself.

“The first term I would call resistance sometimes as a refusal to participate in a coaching” (Interviewee 14).

The other kind of resistance is resistance to the coaching topic.

“They like coaching, but the topic is not for me” (Interviewee 6).

Regarding resistance to the coaching topic, it was mentioned that some coachees assumed a *“concealed management and manipulation order” (Interviewee 14).*

Table 14: Resistance in the understanding of practitioner

Resistance as..	Quote examples
an expressive form as this is always subjective	<i>It is always a resistance in the eyes of someone. Mostly in the eyes of someone who feels slowed down in someone else's motives and goals. And that declares this person as a resistance to the other. Or, with sufficient introspection, also a name for yourself: I'm in the resistance to something. (Interviewee 19)</i>
a question of decision whether the discussed topic during a coaching session is relevant for the coachee.	<i>For me, resistance is actually more of a decision-making process for each individual. (Interviewee 4)</i>
the opposite of acceptance.	<i>Only transparency does not help. But you have to accept it. Acceptance is the opposite of resistance. (Interviewee 8)</i>
part of moral between two parties.	<i>So, if you look at it morally, then just moralities meet one another, so to speak. (Interviewee 8)</i>
lack of motivation	<i>And the general phenomenon for me is, how willing is a person, do we stay with humans to carry out a specific action? That's the very general term. And is this willingness and motivation great or is it low or is it not there, so to speak. (Interviewee 11)</i>
something new	<i>So my idea of resistance is more like that, that's something the person has not thought of yet. Well, like, I call that now, like a hurdle or an obstacle, where somehow I think I just might not have thought it. I just might not even imagine it. (Interviewee 16)</i>
dependent on the personality	<i>That they also recognise as one of the personality factors. How open I am to change. . (Interviewee 11)</i>
an inertia within a system	<i>Resistance basically the inertia within a system in an externally or internally occurring change. . (Interviewee 11)</i>
a difference	<i>If someone is extremely over-adjusted, ... then resistance would be a difference that makes a difference. (Interviewee 8)</i>
something unintentional and unconscious	<i>I join in, but I get in my own way so much that you cannot really work with me, unintentionally; It is quite often that unconscious processes are just the kind of resistance that is so often complained about. Because they just walk in the usual patterns. (Interviewee 6)</i>

Besides 16 interviewees (n=16) who stated that resistance does exist, four interviewees (n=4) rejected that resistance exists and two of these participants provided their explanations as below.

"It is a solution-focused principle, that there is no resistance, only the right key" (Interviewee 3).

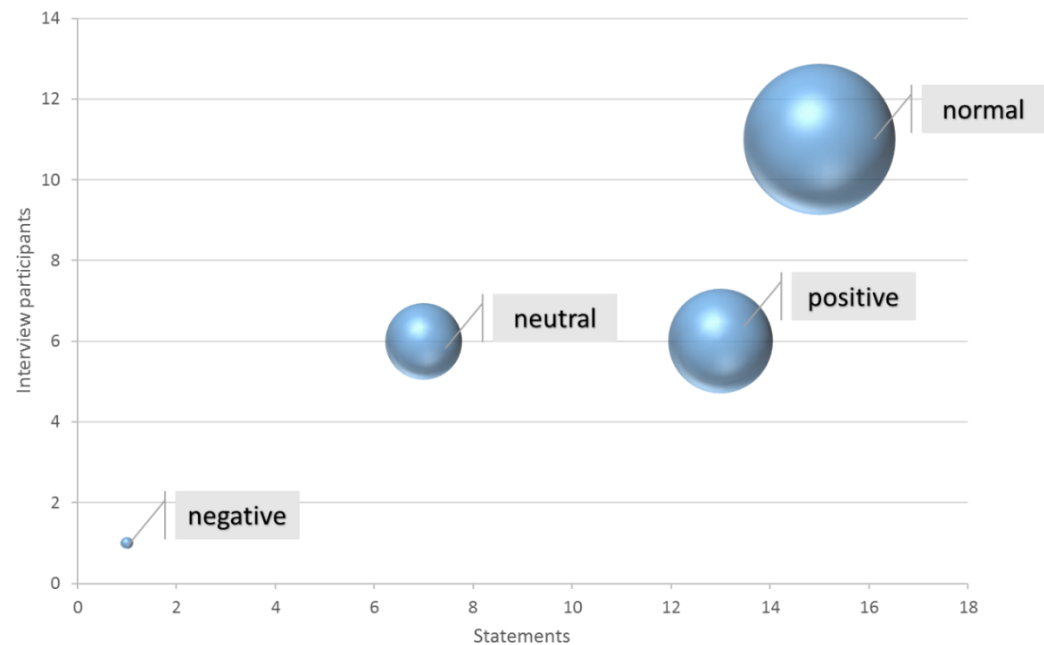
“For me, the concept of resistance does not exist, because in coaching I will not convince anybody from anything” (Interviewee 15).

Furthermore, one interviewee (n=1) stated that resistance is not an appropriate notation. This interviewee understands the behaviour of the coachee as scepticism, reservation, and other opinions, instead of naming it resistance.

“For me, it is the question, if resistance as described in the literature, is existing at all. There are reservations and scepticism. There are different opinions. This is okay. This is no resistance” (Interviewee 2).

Evaluation of resistance

The interviewees evaluated resistance in varied ways and their replies can be clustered into four groups: negative, neutral, normal, and positive. Thereby, the amount of statements which included the evaluation of the four groups was multiplied by the number of interviewees who evaluate resistance as one of the four groups. The numbers within these four groups are shown in figure 16 on the following page.

Figure 16: Overview of the evaluation of resistance by the interviewees

Resistance is described as normal by 11 interviewees ($n=11$) and this is underpinned by 15 statements. These interviewees always expect resistance as they see it as a regular part of every change process, but neither positive nor negative. Indeed, some interviewees stated that they are concerned if they face change without resistance.

“Resistance is a natural reaction to change. A natural and very comprehensible reaction when it comes to adapting to new circumstances” (Interviewee 13).

“There is no change without resistance, resistance is part of a change, as is the fact that the grass is green ... because if there is no resistance at all, then it is more of a concern to me” (Interviewee 9).

“It is always immanent. Well, I do not think that it goes without resistance” (Interviewee 8).

There were 13 statements from 6 interviewees (n=6) that reported resistance as positive. They understand resistance as the energy of the coachee that should be seen as an invitation and a chance for the coach.

“So I welcome resistance because it invites for discussion ... Every resistance is a huge invitation and inspiration, an idea and energy that is there in the room that you just have to use” (Interviewee 20).

“Resistance is always a chance to question what is behind” (Interviewee 12).

Six interviewees (n=6) mentioned in seven statements that resistance is neutral for them. These interviewees claimed resistance, similar to those interviewees evaluating resistance as normal, is neither positive nor negative.

“I noticed that the client has a lot of resistance against a lot of new things. Against many people. Thus, I cannot see the resistance in the long term as something positive, but it is not really something negative” (Interviewee 20).

The differentiation of neutral to normal is inherent to the expectation of the occurrence of resistance. Whereas normal means that resistance always occurs in change initiatives and is therefore regularly expected by the coach, neutral means that resistance is not expected regularly. The interviewees evaluating resistance as neutral said that resistance is noticed by the coach as information. Three (n=3) of them added that the important thing is the consequence of asking what they can do with this information. Two (n=2) stated they just take resistance as a note without any following action if it is not explicitly linked to the coaching aim.

One interviewee (n=1) highlighted resistance, in one statement, as negative. This interviewee described an example of where the negative evaluation came from. In this case, the coach identified himself as a resistance cause.

“Resistance doesn’t always have to lie in the person of the coachee, but it may happen that I as a coach, for example, selected wrong methods or I was at the wrong time to confrontational. That may be the style or the tempo” (Interviewee 9).

Furthermore, resistance was not evaluated clearly by all interviewees. Seven (n=7) of 21 interviewees (n=21) evaluated resistance differently during their interview sessions, as shown in table 15.

Table 15: Mixed evaluation of resistance by interviewees

Evaluation of resistance	No. of participants
Negative, neutral, and positive	1
Neutral and normal	1
Neutral and positive	1
Normal and positive	3

Overall, resistance cannot be precisely described according to the practitioner views and there is variety in the understanding of what resistance is. However, the majority of coaching practitioners evaluated resistance as regularly expected or as a positive impulse that can be used, for example, as an invitation for discussion to solve this resistance.

4.3.3 Identification of resistance through coaching practitioners

The interviewees pointed out several indicators to identify resistance. Likewise, they emphasised how difficult and broad these indicators could be.

“Well, that's of course very broad, because of course, resistance occurs in different ways” (Interviewee 4).

“Difficult, because it can also show diverse, because everyone is different again, in the reaction to it” (Interviewee 2).

The indicators can be summarised into three groups: demonstrated behaviour, body language, and noticed emotions. A detailed overview of all indicators is presented in table 16 on the following page. The number listed beside each indicator refers to the statements, how often the indicator was mentioned (references), and by how many of the interviewees (sources) the indicator was stated. Where there are numbers listed against the indicator “unspecific description”, for example, four sources and four references are outlined in the group of “Noticed emotions”, then the statements cannot be specified further, such as *“but above all I see resistance in emotions” (Interviewee 20)*. The different indicators within the three groups are sorted starting with the most often mentioned indicator.

Table 16: Indicators of resistance

Demonstrated behaviour		
Indicators	No. of participants	No. of statements
Typical statements	12	22
Silence	7	10
Evasive distracting answers	6	6
Tears	6	6
Do not get involved	4	6
Process comes to a halt	3	6
Dates are not respected or postponed	3	5
Sentences starting with "Yes, but..."	4	4
Aloofness	3	4
Swearing	3	3
Coachees' speaking part gets bigger	3	3
Unwillingness	3	3
Lack of acceptance	2	3
Tasks were not performed as agreed	2	3
Conflict	2	2
Being sick	2	2
Being dishonest	2	2
Coming too late	2	2
Laughing	2	2
Making a joke of it	2	2
Unspecific description	2	2
Being lost in thought	1	2
Persist in beliefs	1	2
Become touchy	1	1
Participate pro forma	1	1
Generalising "Somebody could..."	1	1

Body language		
Indicators	No. of participants	No. of statements
Bearing	8	12
Voice and tone	7	11
Gesture	6	7
Facial expression	3	5
View	2	2
Breathing	1	1
Tiredness	1	1

Noticed emotions		
Indicators	No. of participants	No. of statements
Anger	5	7
Unspecific description	4	4
Fear	3	3
Shame	2	2
Stress	2	2
Unreasonable emotions	1	2
Concern	1	1
Frustration	1	1
Pleasure	1	1
Resignation	1	1
Astonishment	1	1
Sorrow	1	1

The interviewees stated 25 indicators of demonstrated behaviour, 11 emotional indicators, and seven indicators of body language for resistance. The indicator of typical statements was mentioned most often by the highest number of interviewees. Three examples of these typical statements are outlined below.

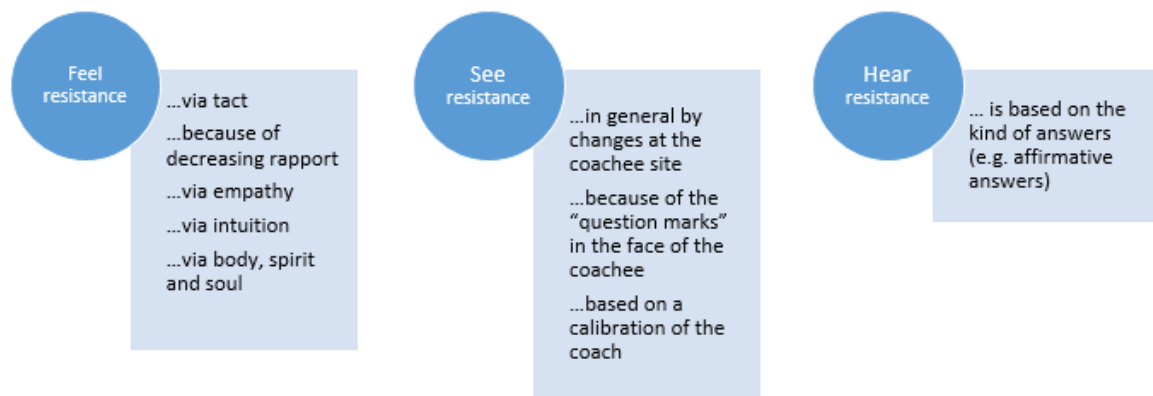
"Why should I do that? What is that supposed to do?" (Interviewee 4)

"That brings nothing here anyway. So what should I say something, or what should I get involved, that will not help" (Interviewee 18).

"My employer says I have to change, although I don't want to change" (Interviewee 17).

All interviewees (N=21) mentioned indicators for each of the three indicator groups as presented in table 16 while seven interviewees (n=7) described in further detail how they notice resistance. Among these seven interviewees were two coach educators. The responses can be divided into three groups: feel, see and hear resistance as shown in figure 17.

Figure 17: Further indicators of resistance



In summary, it can be said that a coach uses all senses to recognise resistance. In detail, 43 indicators of resistance were identified. These indicators can be observed by a coach in the demonstrated behaviour, body language, or emotions of the coachee. The three most stated indicators among all groups were: typical statements, bearing, and voice and tone.

4.3.4 Sources of resistance stated by coaching practitioners

This sub-section describes possible sources for the occurrence of resistance. Two categories were mentioned by the respondents. The first category includes contextual sources based on coaching assignments. The second category includes individual sources. These individual sources occur regardless of the coaching assignment contexts.

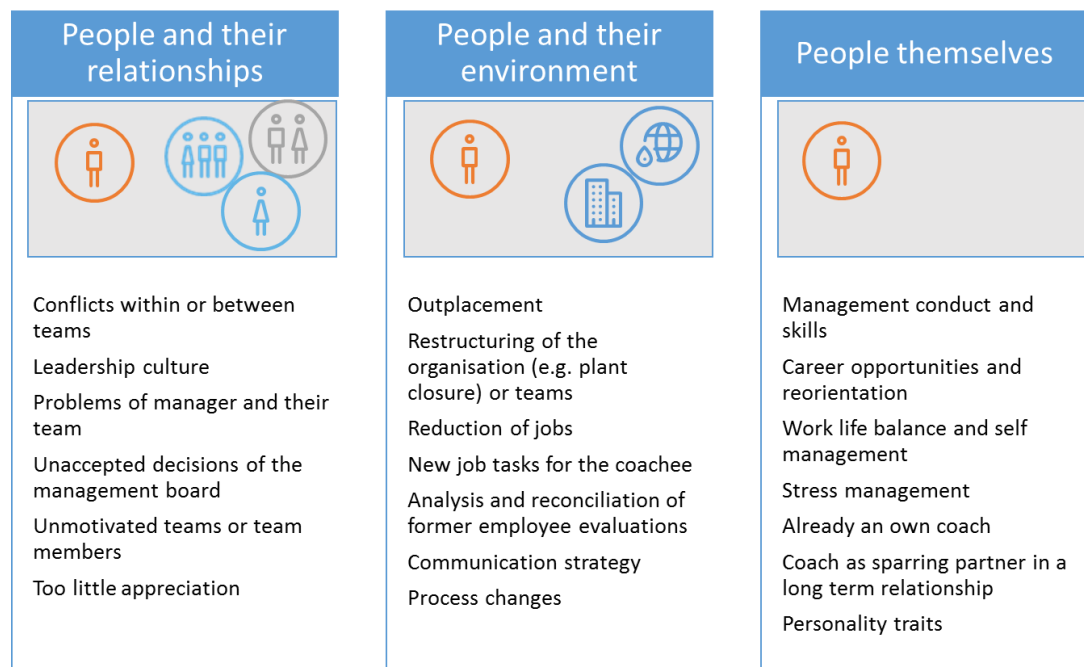
The context of coaching assignments

The interviewees described organisational sources of resistance on the basis of their coaching assignment contexts. These could be divided into three categories. The first is about people and their relationships. The second is built around issues between people and their environmental frameworks. The third consists of issues belonging to the people themselves. Figure 18 on the following page lists key issues for each category, as mentioned by the interviewees.

In total, 16 coaching practitioners (n=16) faced resistance when the coaching assignments were sorted into categories one or two. Moreover, 12 coaching practitioners (n=12) stated that they encountered resistance in coaching assignments in category three. Additionally, three interviewees (n=3) indicated that they faced resistance in all contexts and in almost every single coaching process.

“Resistance in the topic you almost always have” (Interviewee 10).

“Resistance can appear at any point in the process” (Interviewee 9).

Figure 18: Coaching assignments where resistance occurs

Individual sources of resistance

Additionally, the interviewees stated that resistance could come from individual sources of the coachee, sources which could occur in each of the coaching assignment contexts. Table 17 starting on the following page lists individual resistance sources claimed by coachees and includes example statements from the interviewees. The number outlined beside each individual source refers to the statements, how often the source was mentioned (references), and by how many of the interviewees (sources) it was stated.

Table 17: Individual sources of resistance

Title	Sources	References	Example statements by the interviewees
Coach and the coach behaviour	15	24	<i>The resistance does not always have to lie in the person of the coaching partner, but it may be that I have chosen as a coach, for example, wrong methods or I was at the wrong time too confrontational.</i>
Lack of information	6	10	<i>When things are done that someone does not understand but is involved in, it comes in a healthy environment to a resistance.</i> <i>Most of the time it's in the resistance when they just do not know what they can do.</i>
Participation in the coaching is unintended	8	9	<i>Because leaders say that, they have to be there. That means in most cases resistance is inevitable because they would rather be at work or maybe they would have had a day off, because it was put on a weekend, however.</i>
Contrary to own values and beliefs	8	9	<i>So my experience, resistance is there then above all, if this internal operating system is ticking differently.</i> <i>That while it is understood what it is about, but not believe that makes sense.</i>
Fears and concerns	5	6	<i>It is often not the case that the coachee does not want to talk about it, but there is a fear.</i>
Contrary to own objectives and needs	4	5	<i>That it is understood and also believed by the employees but that they do not want to go with it.</i>
External obstacles	3	4	<i>Contexts create resistance because they are compulsory contexts.</i> <i>Premises would be, now I believe, such a central point that one feels uncomfortable and then goes into resistance.</i>
Something new	2	3	<i>Moreover, when you realise what you really need to change, what you have to say goodbye to, and what you may need to learn, it does not always make you feel euphoric.</i>

Less self-assurance	3	3	<i>Sometimes it is secondary to people who are insecure. Something could come out now that I do not want to know or what nobody should know about me or something.</i> <i>And there are many people these days who are no longer able to style their personality and show their self-confidence by whatever aspects</i>
Something is unconscious	3	3	<i>As soon as any subject is triggered, what they may have somehow perceived on a subconscious level, ... , most of them are quite often in resistance,</i>
Lack of skills and abilities	2	3	<i>Moreover, these obstacles can then be grounded in himself, i.e. in ... his abilities, his resources.</i>
Openness to change	1	2	<i>There are personality traits that make it difficult for him to get involved in these changes. This goes all the way to psychology, for example, there is the factor model of the personality, because there is this parameter openness to change, so how open is anyone of his person, of his character.</i>
Something is not indifferent	1	1	<i>Resistance is always an invitation to talk. That's a great gift because the other one is attentive. Moreover, that is something fundamental. He is not indifferent.</i>
Inner ambivalence	1	1	<i>What is often called resistance is an expression of inner ambivalence. There is a voice in me that says, that's okay. Another says that's not okay.</i>
Topics should not be discussed	1	1	<i>That they may not want to look at certain topics and go into resistance.</i>
Lack of decision making	1	1	<i>And of course, some people are reluctant to decide. Here we have resistance again.</i>
Changes were not linked to something positive	1	1	<i>...than they are always in resistance, always. Because change does not mean anything positive to people in many cases.</i>

Persist in own intentions	1	1	<i>Because the people who are resistant get stuck in their intentions. People are almost holding on to their intentions and are not willing to be invited to look at the impact.</i>
People do not like to unlearn	1	1	<i>Sometimes coaching is going on wonderfully well, and then that will only develop later the resistance. Because change always means that I have to unlearn things and people do not like to do that.</i>

Thus, the most frequently occurring individual source of resistance to change is the coach and coach behaviour. Thereby, not only the interpersonal level is important but also the tools and techniques applied by the coach.

The coach as resistance source

The coach as individual source of resistance, which was mentioned most (n=15), relates to the personal fit and the behaviour of the coach and the coachee towards each other. As such, the interviewees stressed how vital the first meeting between a coach and a coachee is, because it is within this first discussion that both sides decide if they want to work together.

“Because that’s just important, that you have the choice” (Interviewee 21).

In total, 13 interviewees (n=13) pointed out that the decision about future collaboration depends on the extent of mutual sympathy and trust.

“Well, as a rule, one gets to know each other and investigates, whether it fits in person. Because ... I also need to have confidence in the other person. I have to be sympathetic to him. Otherwise, it will not work” (Interviewee 6).

“Trust is very, very important in coach-coachee relationships” (Interviewee 10).

In case sympathy is not given, some interviewees noted that they first try to analyse themselves before refusing the coaching.

“Do I know the patterns that people trigger in myself?” (Interviewee 19).

There were two other factors mentioned why a coach encountered resistance and was rejected by a coachee. These were the experience level and gender.

“When it comes to leadership, most of the time, they also want someone to have leadership experience ... they always want many similarities, that they usually do not have to explain too much” (Interviewee 3).

„... a man does not want to work with a woman or vice versa” (Interviewee 10).

However, the majority (n=18) of the interviewees explained that their coaching was rarely refused by the coachee. Only in exceptional cases (n=3) did the coachee reject the coach after their first meeting.

In summary, the sources of resistance stated by the interviewees could be clustered into two categories. First, the context of a coaching assignment could be an indication if there is the risk that resistance will occur, for example, team conflicts, process changes, or stress management. Second, there are individual sources such as low self-assurance or personal fears and concerns which could support resistance. In addition, these individual sources could occur in each of the coaching assignment contexts. Of note is that the most often mentioned individual source was the coaches themselves, for example, in the absence of mutual trust and sympathy.

4.3.5 Factors and attributes of a successful coach-coachee relationship

This study indicates that the most crucial element of a coaching exercise is the coach-coachee relationship as it is key to the effectiveness and success of the coaching. This finding is also underlined by the literature (e.g. Boyce et al., 2009). Therefore, this subsection outlines the success factors and attributes of a successful coach-coachee relationship as explained by the interviewees. It commences with factors of the coach-coachee relationship itself, including supportive attributes of coaches and coachees. Then, the attributes of a coach, which were described by the interviewees as being supportive of a successful coach-coachee relationship, are presented.

Importance of the coach-coachee relationship

First, a total of 18 interviewees (n=18) underlined the importance of the coach-coachee relationship. With 86% this is a significant percentage of the interviewees.

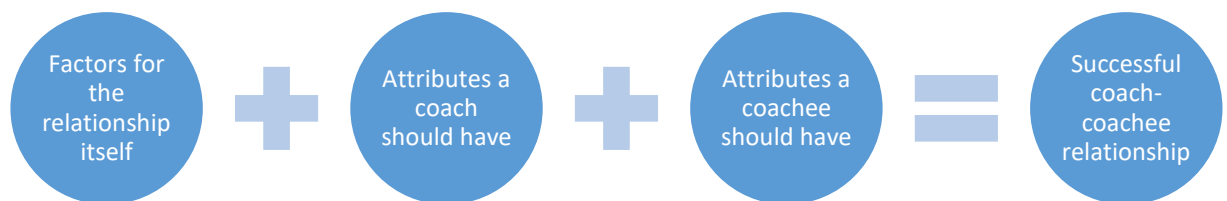
“80 percent of the coaching success is based on the relationship and not on the method” (Interviewee 21).

Next, the interviewees mentioned the factors that lead to a successful relationship. These factors were: trust (n=12), transparency (n=3), and the subjective fit of the coach and the coachee including mutual respect (n=4). Furthermore, around a quarter of the interviewees (n=5) pointed out that the coach and the coachee should have a cooperative relationship where both are on the same level and no one is above the other. However, one interviewee (n=1) did state that the coach needs to have more of a leading role and consequently, is at a slightly higher level than the coachee. According to this interviewee, this enables the coach to provide orientation to the coachee during the coaching process.

“The coach just has to be a bit further than the coachee in everything he does. And otherwise, the coachee would not recognise the coach, so to speak, simply because the coachee orients oneself at the coach. That is not a hierarchy that is already eye level. But maybe you're still one wink further” (Interviewee 7).

As with the factors for the relationship itself, the interview responses revealed that a successful coach-coachee relationship is additionally affected by attributes that are supportive of the coach and the coachee, as shown in figure 19.

Figure 19: Ingredients for a successful coach-coachee relationship



The interviewees reported that there are five main attributes a coach should have for a successful coach-coachee relationship. The first attribute is the personal and professional competence of the coach. Five interviewees (n=5) mentioned that coachees equate recognition of competence with a feeling of safety and comfort.

“Usually, coachees are also well qualified depending on the age and career level. They already had a lot of coaches and consultants and are already trained themselves. ... And that’s when I really experience that competence and age and education play a huge role” (Interviewee 3).

The second attribute refers to the coach's perception, the extent to which the coach biases the coachee and the coaching topic. Four interviewees (n=4) called themselves "unintentional" and "neutral", without pushing the coachee in one direction.

"So like a good leaflet in a drug. It depends on how you should take it. And then you look and say, with the side effects, I would rather not. And to create this awareness also prevents clients from taking on something. ... It sometimes happens, that they are out of the coach's depth in his eloquence. Then the clients say: well, come on, I'll say better, I'll do it. And then later at home, somehow, they realise that was not good" (Interviewee 19).

The third attribute is about valuing the coachee. Five interviewees (n=5) pointed out that it is essential to take the coachees seriously and to value them.

"The assumption of good reason with others. Everyone has a good reason in his view for why he behaves the way he behaves" (Interviewee 21).

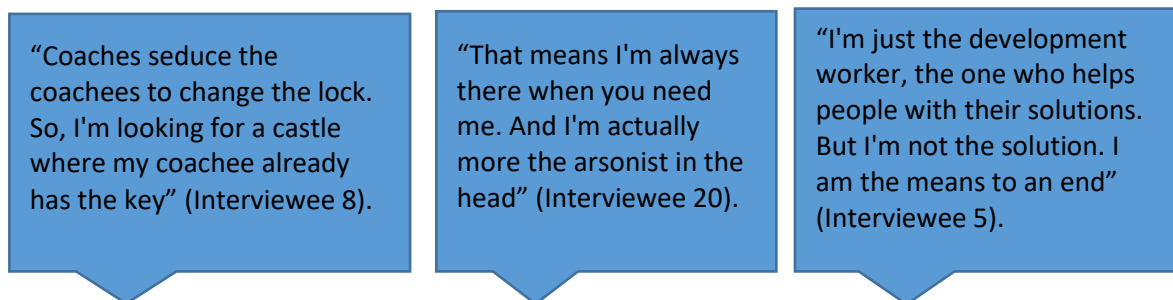
The fourth attribute focuses on acceptance. According to four interviewees (n=4), it is crucial for a successful relationship to accept the coachee for what he is, and try to really understand why the coachee is participating in the coaching session. This was described as *"having a sincere interest in the person of the coachee" (Interviewee 20)*. Along with the last two attributes, it is significant for the relationship that the coach is reliable, so the coachee feels and believes to be valued and accepted. Besides these four main attributes, each of the following points were mentioned by one interviewee (n=1): flexible and able to handle every situation that happens in a coaching session; not stressed or under time pressure; monetarily independent of the coaching job to be free in behaviour and decisions; goal-oriented; giving the coachee the feeling that the solution is already inside the coachee; and not take anything personally but always staying at a professional distance.

The last attribute relates to the self-image of a coach. Eight (n=8) interviewees explained their self-images included their understanding of coaching and their self-development efforts because they found this is essential for a successful coach-coachee relationship.

Three interviewees (n=3) represented their understanding of coaching by the description of their higher goals for a coaching process beyond the goals decided at the beginning of the coaching assignment. Respectively, one interviewee (n=1) mentioned that their primary objective is to support the coachee and to understand their thoughts and beliefs. Another interviewee (n=1) noted that the coachee should always be central in the coaching session.

In addition, four interviewees (n=4) described themselves and their profession with the help of metaphors, three examples of which are outlined in figure 20.

Figure 20: Metaphors for the self-image of coaches



Moreover, according to 16 interviewees (n=16), self-development is an essential part of the self-image of a coach. Thus, the focus of self-development is on working on one's own attitude and understanding one's own inner set up. They try to achieve self-development through supervision, meta-vision, self-reflection, and self-observation. In fact, supervision was mentioned most often, followed by meta-vision and self-reflection.

“One is the topic of experience. The other is, of course, that as a good coach, I also have a coach myself, or a consultant, then through self-reflection and also through discussions with colleagues, so simply about the topic of exchange” (Interviewee 16).

Preconditions for good self-development were outlined by the interviewees as financial independence, openness towards new experiences, and being at peace with oneself. Each precondition was mentioned by one interviewee (n=1).

Furthermore, there were some attributes outlined that a coachee should have to support a thriving coach-coachee relationship. Five of the interviewees (n=5) agreed that openness is the most important factor.

“And of course, the coachee also needs the commitment to contribute content from his side and the willingness to work on behaviour, thought patterns, perspectives and similar points” (Interviewee 2).

Moreover, three of the interviewees (n=3) saw self-responsibility of the coachee as decisive.

“I always say, I promise only hard work but no red roses. In the sense that much depends on himself. There can be a good result at the end but does not have to be” (Interviewee 17).

Additionally, one interviewee (n=1) underlined that the coachee needs to feel that the coach works independently from the coachee’s organisation.

“And the client also has to believe that I want his best ... I often say that in many conversations: Your boss pays me, but that's why I will not do what he wants” (Interviewee 20).

In the opinion of the author, this is a success factor of the coachee and not of the coach because the important aspect is that the coachee has to have the feeling, regardless of whether or not the coach really is independent.

In summary, a successful coach-coachee relationship consist of three parts. The first part is the relationship itself which is characterised by mutual trust and respect. The second part is described by attributes of the coach. The most important attributes are personal and professional competence, trust towards the coachee, valuing the coachee, and acceptance of the coachee. The last part comprises the attributes of a coachee, of which openness and self-responsibility are crucial. Overall, it can be concluded that a successful coach-coachee relationship with an emphasis on resistant coachees, is achieved through mutual trust and respect, the competencies of the coach, the openness of the coachee, and the coach in the role of a supporter for the coachee. Therefore, ongoing self-development efforts by coaches are essential for their personal and professional competence.

4.3.6 Approaches of coaches to manage resistance

This study identifies several key approaches a coach may use to deal with resistance in the coaching process. When considering which approach to use, it is important to recognise that there are two kinds of resistance which coul occur either individually or together. These are resistance to the coaching topic and/or resistance to the coaching itself.

Resistance to the coaching topic

The interviewees pointed out three aspects that should be considered if the coachees are resistant regarding the coaching topic: the overall mental state of the coachee, the coaching environment, and the behaviour of the coach.

According to five interview participants (n=5), they tried to shift their resistant client into a positive mental state to enable them to deal with the resistance more easily. Thus, the interviewees (n=4) underlined the use of methods to de-stress and relax the coachee, for example, by telling a joke. Furthermore, the interviewees (n=5) intend to give the coachees the feeling of being appreciated and taken seriously with phrases such as *“I cost money. I come here for you”* (Interviewee 20). In addition, the interview participants (n=2) pointed out that the past experiences of a coachee should be considered by the coach, otherwise the coachee may feel debased.

“If you devaluate the past, you also depreciate the person, and this strengthens the resistance at some point” (Interviewee 7).

According to four interviewees (n=4), it is additionally essential to listen carefully in order to notice every piece of information the coachee provides.

“And then listen, what's the topic, where did the discrepancy, the incongruence, what are unspoken questions. Main questions, side questions, key phrases that indicate what the coachee has a topic. So what is also said in which certain things are said? So listen very much between the lines. And not only on the action level but also in the here and now” (Interviewee 1).

Moreover, the coaching environment was highlighted by two interviewees (n=2). They stated that the coachee needs to feel comfortable, and there should be some space to shape, as one interviewee explained.

“For example, I had a client, who always brought fresh flowers for her session” (Interviewee 17).

Additionally, three of the interviewees (n=3) reported that they partly performed their coaching outside, for example, on a walk, a boat, in a park, or at a zoo.

“I am adjusting my speed and becoming slower when I notice, that it feels hard to speak for the coachee about a sensible topic. Moreover, then you often notice they speak a bit more” (Interviewee 21).

Furthermore, it was underlined that the behaviour of a coach has a positive impact in several ways when it comes to resistance to the coaching topic. Along with that, there were some tools and techniques outlined for the coach that are supportive in managing resistance. The underlying principles are often aimed at changing the perspective of the coachee and working with the resources of a coachee, such as competencies, values, and beliefs. These tools and techniques could be grouped into five approaches for the coach, as shown in figure 21 on the following page.

Figure 21: Tools and techniques for coaches to deal with resistance

Build up awareness for new and future situations at the coachee side	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let the coachee paint a picture of the future • Allow new things to be imagined • Let the coachee test new things via trial and error in their lives • Work with scenarios: Show what would happen if the resistance would be ignored by the company. Show what would happen with the coachee if the resistance keeps up.
Analyse the coachee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different kind of questions such as exploring questions or hypothetical questions • Identify the meta-objective • Observe and mirroring • Work with the inner team of the coachee • Reserve time for the resistance state • Listen actively, be creative, and think out of the box
Enable the coachee to better understand their environment and colleagues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show the dilemma of the coach, if the coachee does not collaborate • Narrate similar stories from former coachees • Promote the understanding of the contrary side • Work with roles • Reframing, Modelling • Involve other people
Use different communication approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work with metaphors • Be provocative • Set anchor points for positive emotions and energy • Excuses by the coach in case the resistance are based up on the coach e.g. the coach's behaviour
Amplify the abilities of the coachee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop new courses of action • Build up skills and abilities on the coachee side • Set targets to be achieved for the next coaching sessions

For example, two interviewees (n=2) suggested reserving time for the resistant state.

“The only possibility I can imagine for this phase is actually to take the time” (Interviewee 7).

Moreover, the competencies of active listening, being creative, and thinking out of the box were mentioned as being very important for a coach.

“I always try to go other ways, because in principle the old ways do not change anything” (Interviewee 20).

In addition to the tools and techniques outlined in figure 21, it was mentioned by one interviewee (n=1) that *“the basic idea is to go to one direction and make it clear at all times, that it is going in this certain direction”* (Interviewee 7). Furthermore, a couple of interviewees (n=2) outlined that there should be an objective of coaching that requires to be followed and achieved. In contrast, another interviewee (n=1) explained that a coach needs to be open-minded without any expectation about where the coaching may end up. Also, one interviewee (n=1) said that it is sometimes helpful for the coachee, and decreases their resistance, if they tell the coach their problems without clear goal setting. In this case, coaching has more the character of a *“valve” or “trouble box”* (Interviewee 10). However, the majority (n=13) of the interviewees agreed that a prerequisite for dealing with resistance successfully is to address the resistance and *“take the resistance seriously, not to go against, but to go along with it”* (Interviewee 7).

Along with approaches that deal with resistance to the coaching topic, the interview participants outlined approaches to deal with resistance to the coaching itself. These are discussed next.

Resistance to the coaching itself

A coach is assigned to an employee for various reasons by an organisation.

“Sometimes coaching is a reward, sometimes someone wants it for themselves and sometimes coaching is a sanction” (Interviewee 21).

In case of coaching as a sanction, the potential coachee does not necessarily want the coaching and may therefore show resistance to it right from the start. According to the interviewees, it is not unusual that an employee is sent for coaching, for example, to improve leadership skills or to learn how to deal with conflicts in the own team. However,

five of the interviewees (n=5) explained that they never faced a situation where the coachee is not willing to do coaching.

“For me, it usually does not happen, because I make that clear in the assignment clarification” (Interviewee 21).

Eight interviewees (n=8) stated that they reject the assignment when they identify this kind of resistance from the coachee during the first discussion.

“Nothing can be done against resistance. If someone does not mind, if the boss sends someone, then you can do nothing there, you can only cancel that” (Interviewee 6).

“I am not available for that because this is coaching against the will of the coachee. And that makes no sense at all” (Interviewee 21).

Three of the interviewees (n=3) strengthened this opinion, as they reported having moral concerns.

“I think this is highly unprofessional, to accept such coaching, one earns money, but messes up his reputation, and ultimately no result comes out” (Interviewee 6).

“Let's say that, because I do not do coaching, where the client does not volunteer for coaching” (Interviewee 15).

However, there was also the opposite opinion, albeit represented by fewer interviewees (n=3).

“If there is resistance, it will be exciting to coach” (Interviewee 1).

“Well, I like doing that” (Interviewee 8).

Just over half (n=11) of the interviewees dealt with resistance against coaching by addressing it directly.

“Yes ok, you do not want to work with me. It seems you have to do something better right now” (Interviewee 21).

In such situations, they ask whether they can do anything to solve the resistance, or to increase the willingness of the coachee to participate in the coaching. Additionally, the interviewees ask if there is any part of the coaching the coachee could imagine, or if there are any areas where the coach can support the coachee.

“What should actually be in coaching, that you find it interesting for you?” (Interviewee 7)

The interviewees further explained that the coachee is encouraged by these questions to think about personal challenges and problems. Hence, the interviewees reported that it leads to an increase in openness and consequently a decrease in resistance.

“Then the coachee gets also from me explained that necessary of course these opening processes are, which the individual also must be prepared to go along” (Interviewee 5).

One interviewee replied that in the case of resistance to the coaching, the sponsor is used as the primary argument.

“And either you do it or not. And if you do not join, I'll go back to the leadership and say, they will not cooperate. Sorry, you have to solve that as an executive. Coaching is the wrong means” (Interviewee 8).

To summarise, two kinds of resistance have been identified: resistance to the coaching topic and resistance to the coaching itself. Central approaches to deal with resistance to the

coaching topic are to shift the resistor into a good mental state, evaluate their past, and provide a comfortable environment during the coaching sessions—which could differ depending on the coachee's preferences. Additionally, several approaches were demonstrated where a coach should take care of, for example, address the resistance of the coachee. Furthermore, specific tools could be identified which imply to build the coachee's awareness, analyse the coachee, enable the coachee to better understand their environment and colleagues, use different communication approaches, and which could amplify the abilities of the coachee. The second kind of resistance is resistance to the coaching itself. This resistance mostly occurs if the coaching is enforced for the employees by their organisation. In this case, eight (n=8) of the coaching practitioners reported that they directly reject the coaching assignment. However, the main approach to deal with resistance to the coaching is to address the resistance directly by asking the coachee if anything can be done to overcome this resistance.

As this research focuses solely on external coaching, it is interesting to consider how coaching practitioners assess the opportunities to utilise either internal or external coaching opportunities to deal with individual change resistance. Most of the interviewees were indifferent if external or internal coaches are better suited to deal with change resistance. An overview of the responses in detail is shown in appendix G.

4.3.7 Training and development for coaches in the field of resistance

This research addresses the training and development requirement of coaches in the topic of potential resistance. This is important because the coaches' sense-making of resistance can be influenced by training and development. To present the results of the interviews,

the sub-section is divided into three parts. The first part analyses the training and development content that the interview participants offered to the market. The second part investigates what the interview participants experience is and where they gain their knowledge about resistance from. Within the last part, it is identified to what extent dedicated training and development specifically in the area of coaching resistance is meaningful to the interviewees. Finally, the last part reports the understanding of the participants regarding the current training offer, with an emphasis on resistance on the market.

Training and development offered by the interviewees

This part outlines the interview findings regarding training and development of coaches in the field of resistance offered by the 10 interview participants (n=10) who work as business coach educators. The presented results may give implication which training content is important as well as possible target groups for training with an emphasis on change resistance. First, a couple of interviewees (n=2) stated the significance of resistance as a topic in coaching that is an *“absolute central part, I teach this to all”* (Interviewee 9). However, only one interviewee (n=1) considered resistance in a specific sub-theme. The majority of the interviewees (n=6) inform their training participants about resistance as an integrated part of other training topics, for example, change, leadership, or an agile coaching approach.

The interviewees outlined three groups of participants in their training. The first group are internal and external coaches who are already working as a coach, or who are planning to work as a coach. The second group includes managers and HR employees that want to use coaching elements for their daily work. The third group consists of people working in other professions, mostly with a consulting aspect, such as medical doctors, teachers, or business

consultants. The interviewees did not specify any further what the proportion of these three groups are. However, they stated that training content does not differentiate between the participant groups.

“It is obvious that a manager is not the same as a coach. I have other tasks and responsibilities as a leader, but I can use coaching methods and elements in the leadership position. ... Basically, the training is the same for everyone” (Interviewee 12).

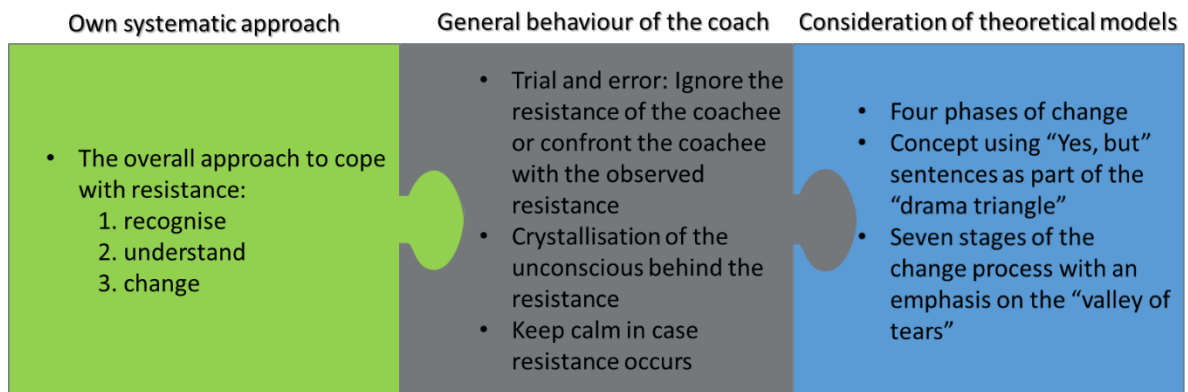
“It’s about coaching skills and competencies that we teach, and that can be used in different professions” (Interviewee 6).

Furthermore, some of the interviewees indicated that typical questions from their training participants are: How can I use resistance productively? What should I do with resistors? How could I react when the coachee shows emotion, for example, starts to cry?

The training offered by the interviewees is structured around different coaching approaches, such as the systemic approach, analytical approach, transactional approach, constructivism or humanistic psychology. Thus, all training is supported by an approach mixture, for example, systemic-analytical. This mixture of approaches is also reflected in the adopted methods.

“The coaches learn the methods from different schools, and afterwards they have a toolbox that feeds itself from different schools” (Interviewee 12).

These methods are partly self-developed by the coach educators or transferred from the methods introduced by specific coaching approaches. An overview of the conducted methods is presented in figure 22 on the following page.

Figure 22: Methods to deal with resistance trained by the interviewees

There was unanimous agreement between the interviewees (n=10) about the importance of case studies as a primary method and the collection of practical experiences of the training participants during the training. These case studies simulate a coaching situation with resistant coachees.

“So I think it is important that coaches have a very high level of self-awareness. That means that they go through several coaching exercises in the training. ... We always have a demo, and then they practice with each other. ... One participant is then the coachee of the other” (Interviewee 9).

One of the interviewees (n=1) emphasised that the coaching topics are always real. Hence, this interviewee goes one step ahead and involves the training participants in real client situations.

“There is live coaching. That means that from my customer base I convey different coachees, who coach them throughout the year” (Interviewee 3).

In addition, three interviewees (n=3) shared the opinion that the training objective is to facilitate the perception and mindfulness of the training participants for the potential coachee, but mainly for themselves.

“Then I have to understand what’s going on inside me” (Interviewee 10).

“The methods that I subsequently use in coaching I also use for me first to clarify myself” (Interviewee 12).

Training and development experienced by the interviewees

The training and development courses completed by the interviewees are manifold, such as hypno-systemic training, humanistic training, communicative-psychological training (presented by Schulz von Thun), or psycho-dramatic training. All of the interviewees with more than 20 years of working experience in the coaching area (n=9) claimed to have no coaching education which solely concentrates on learning to be a coach.

“Well, I cannot serve with coaching education. They did not exist at the beginning of the 90s” (Interviewee 2).

However, nearly all interviewees (n=18) stated that they attended training, which they found useful for working as a coach dealing with resistance.

“But there have been seminars, workshops, training, which dealt with mental-technical, psychological content ... or with the topic of personal and organisational development, something like that” (Interviewee 11).

Furthermore, two interviewees (n=2) pointed out that knowledge gathering about resistance is based upon *“a lot of experience, [and] much [of it is] autodidactic self-*

developed” (Interviewee 20). Of interest is that two of the interviewees (n=2) could not precisely report if their attended training provided specific content to resistance.

“It may be that we did that, but I really did not remember it” (Interviewee 16).

“There was definitely no extra block on the subject of resistance. That definitely not. Whether it was an issue here and there, I don’t think so, but I ... cannot say that for sure” (Interviewee 18).

Three interviewees (n=3) pointed out that they gather their knowledge in the area of resistance directly from their coaching education, with one interviewee explicitly critiquing coaching education:

“What I’ve learned [about resistance], I’ve learned in other fields [but not from my trainings]. ... I’ve found it a bit too commercial in terms of dealing with resistance. Because there was the focus [that] you have to keep your client. And that coaching is also a business model. That personally didn’t promise me at all” (Interviewee 14).

Of note is that more than half of the interviewees (n=13) mentioned that they need to be convinced of the training content before they implement it in their working practice.

“I worked precisely as I have learned ... because that’s my inner conviction” (Interviewee 1).

However, most of the interviewees took away different learnings about resistance from each training opportunity and combined that individually in their coaching practice. Critical lessons from the training received are presented in table 18 on the following page.

Table 18: Critical lessons about coping with resistance in attended trainings

Critical lessons of attended training	Quote examples
The coachee is important.	<i>It is exactly that, the other one is important. ... You as a coach from outside, you cannot change anything. Nothing at all, neither in the person nor a system. From the outside, you can only irritate someone, invite them to think, make presents and offers. (Interviewee 20)</i>
The coach needs to be self-reflected because the better the coach understands themselves, the better they can understand the coachee.	<i>The coach should have his own reflection as high as possible ... Which pattern does it trigger? What do I have for projections with the client? (Interviewee 3)</i>
It is essential to identify a reason behind the resistance	<i>"Because they know how to change it, but they don't do it. There must be a reason for it. And to question that, there is a lot in it" (Interviewee 6).</i>
The point mentioned most frequently was about the attitude of the coach.	<i>According to that resistance should be seen as "no problem but valuable feedback" (Interviewee 21) and "an opportunity to clarify and fathom things" (Interviewee 12).</i>
To recognise and interpret the body as a feedback instrument by the coachee itself by the coach	<i>... to use the body as a feedback tool. In yourself, but also in the opposite. (Interviewee 21)</i>
Ignorance of resistance leads to more resistance.	<i>"Pacing is really something fundamental. Showing understanding, taking away pressure, giving room to the resistance, entering into dialogue, (and) exploring causes." (Interviewee 13)</i>
A coach-coachee relationship built on trust.	<i>"Trust is the engine." (Interviewee 5)</i>

In summary, it could be stated that dealing with resistance in a coaching context should be trained because it is an important requirement for internal and external coaches, as well as for people from other professions who want to adopt coaching elements in their daily work. This training can consist of a mixture of coaching approaches and methods. In particular, case studies to simulate coaching with resistant coachees are reported as being very effective by the interview participants.

Potential for specific training about resistance and current training on the market

The interviewees were asked about their knowledge of the current training being offered on the market that deal with resistance. A significant majority of interviewees (n=18) did not know if any current training is available which includes resistance, or even how

resistance is generally trained. However, it is noted that only three interviewees (n=3) claimed to actually be aware of the current market. Among them, two (n=2) mentioned that the training offered is not appropriate to the field of resistance. Three interviewees (n=3) highlighted the importance of training in the field of resistance for managers, as resistance is becoming more common, mainly due to the rapidly changing business world. Additionally, they stated team development as an important field where the leadership team needs to know how to deal with resistance.

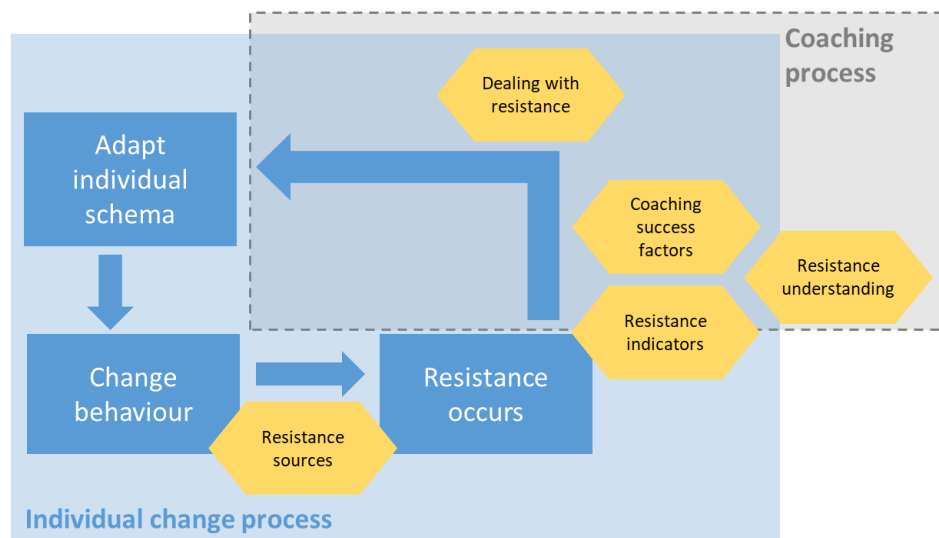
“In executive training, I find it [useful] - I would see it a bit more accentuated, so to speak, that you actually name change and resistance explicitly and classify it” (Interviewee 7).

Eight (n=8) of the interviewees claimed that there is no potential for training that is specially created for handling resistance, as resistance is just one part of the change process and cannot be addressed separately. Furthermore, they underlined that the target group, and context, of such training could be difficult to define as resistance is highly dependent on the coaching target and context. Another eight (n=8) reported the potential of specialised training because resistance is assessed as a very relevant and essential topic which coaches are often confronted with in their coaching sessions. The interviewees suggested implementing it as a dedicated training session embedded in more extensive training/certification programmes or as distinct further education courses. The recommended duration of these distinct courses varied between two hours and two days, and it was considered that training could be provided in the form of role-playing exercises as interactive workshops. One interviewee (n=1) pointed out the importance of knowledge in the area of resistance, including adequate training, especially for young coaches who might not have much experience as a coach or employee within a business environment.

4.4 Findings and the conceptual framing

To link the research findings with the conceptual framing presented in 2.3, five finding categories are mapped on figure 23: resistance sources, resistance indicators, resistance understanding, coaching success factors and dealing with resistance.

Figure 23: Integration of the research findings into the conceptual framing



The sources of resistance are positioned at the beginning of the individual change process when resistance occurs, since these sources specify which environmental or individual factors lead to resistance. The indicators are located at the very beginning of the coaching process as they are used to describe how resistance is identified by the external coaches. Similarly, they are partially positioned in the individual change process, because the individual shows these resistance indicators independently if the coach is already involved in the change process. The understanding of resistance is mainly situated outside the individual change process, because it describes the coach's understanding of resistance, which is only slightly influenced by the coachee, but is based for instance on previous

experiences. Success factors of coaching are focused on the overlap of the coaching process and the individual change process, because they emphasise important aspects in coaching of resistant coachees. The last category is dealing with resistance. This is also positioned in the overlap of both areas, but closer to the schema change of the individual, as these approaches explain what an external coach can do to enable the coachee to change his schema.

The placement of the results suggests that the coach should consider the trigger of the change, the occurrence of resistance and the coach's own attitude towards resistance in the coaching process. This is further explored in the discussion of the results and is explicitly addressed in section 5.5. Thus, the next chapter of this thesis provides a discursive analysis of the findings in light of the literature review and extant research in the field.

5 Discussion of findings

This chapter synthesises the empirical findings presented in chapter four and existing literature in order to answer the following four research sub-questions:

RQ1: What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?

RQ2: How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?

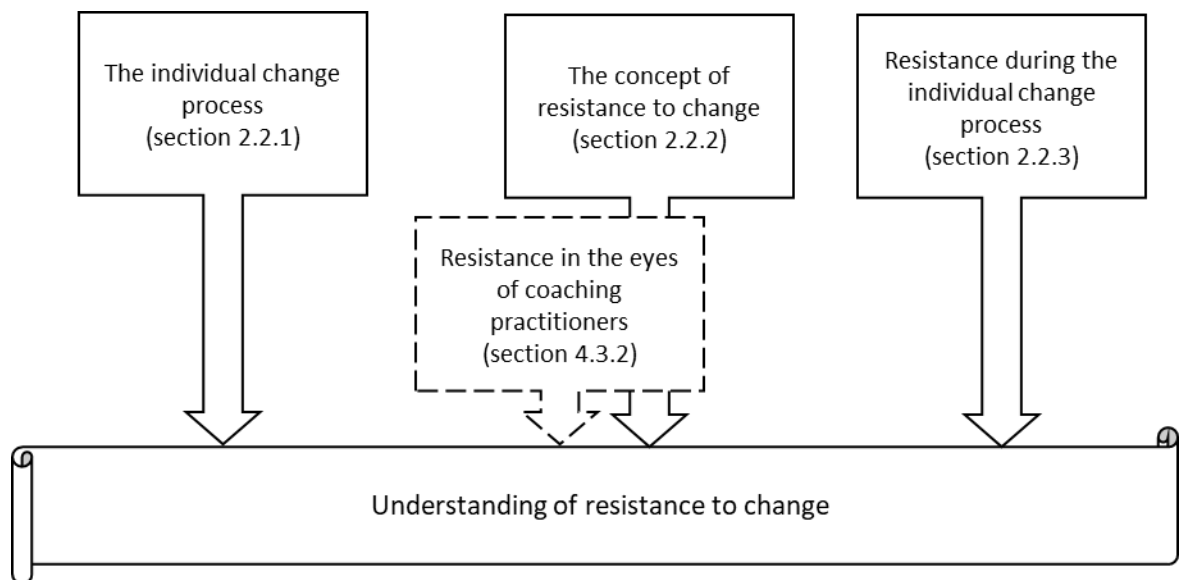
RQ3: How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?

RQ4: What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?

The interview results identified resistance as a reaction of coachees that must always be expected in the coaching process. Thereby, the context of the coaching assignment, such as a team conflict, was identified as one possible source for resistance. Further sources are grounded in the personality of the coachee, for example the change openness. In addition, interviewees identified indicators of resistance such as coachees' behaviours, body language and emotions. Furthermore, they stated that approaches that support and facilitate the coachee are suitable for dealing successfully with resistance. For this successful dealing with resistance a trusting coach-coachee relationship is beneficial. More detailed discussions of these findings are presented below.

5.1 What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?

This section integrates the research findings to clarify what resistance means to external coaches. The findings are derived from sub-sections as shown in figure 24. The boxes with solid lines mark the relevant sections of the literature while the boxes with broken lines mark the relevant sections of the findings chapter. The related sections are positioned below each other.

Figure 24: Understanding of resistance to change – considered thesis sections

First, this research finding is consistent with previous literature that indicated resistance is defined in varied ways. For instance, resistance is explained as a cognitive state, as behaviour, or as an emotional state (Oreg, 2003; Patalano, 2011; Piderit, 2000). The data indeed suggested that the interviewees had very different understandings of that resistance. For example, resistance is recognised as a lack of motivation that is reflected in the behaviour of the coachee. Resistance is also seen as a cognitive state by the interviewees because resistance occurs if the coachee faces something new in the change process.

Second, this research broadens the previous literature by specifying a situational and interpretative context of resistance at the workplace. In the scientific area of political hierarchies and power, resistance is outlined as context specific and has a situational character (Courpasson & Vallas, 2016, pp. 7–9). According to Bracher (2012), individuals develop different schemas over their lifetime which are underpinned by their knowledge

and experience. These developed schemas are used to interpret information in a specific context (Rousseau, 2001), for instance in the changing process. Indeed, this research suggests that resistance should depend on the personality of the coachee and their former experiences because it influences the openness to change and the interpretation of the change situation. In addition, the interviewees reported that resistance is always subjective as situations are interpreted differently by coaches and coachees. Hence, contextual factors and individual bias should be considered when the coach interprets resistance from the coachees' behaviours and emotional reactions.

Third, this thesis extends the literature and discovers two new evaluations of resistance from coaches. Aligning with prior studies, this research specifies that resistance is understood as positive and should be seen as valuable feedback for managers and coaches (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Bareil, 2013; Ford et al., 2008; Klonek et al., 2014). In addition, there is the perspective of resistance as negative that rejects or disturbs the change (Bareil, 2013). Unexpectedly, two participants of this study believed that resistance is presented in literature as mainly negative but at the same time evaluated resistance as positive. One quote is listed below as an example.

"In contrast to the textbooks, I believe ... that resistance is a great gift" (Interviewee 20).

A possible explanation is that the interviewee has actually experienced in his daily practice that resistance is perceived as negative by the organisations that employed him. In addition, one finding from this study shows some interviewees denied that resistance exists in their coaching process.

"For me, the concept of resistance does not exist, because in coaching I will not convince anybody from anything" (Interviewee 15).

However, this study indicates that resistance is mainly seen as positive or normal. Normal means that resistance is usually expected in the coaching process, whether positive or negative.

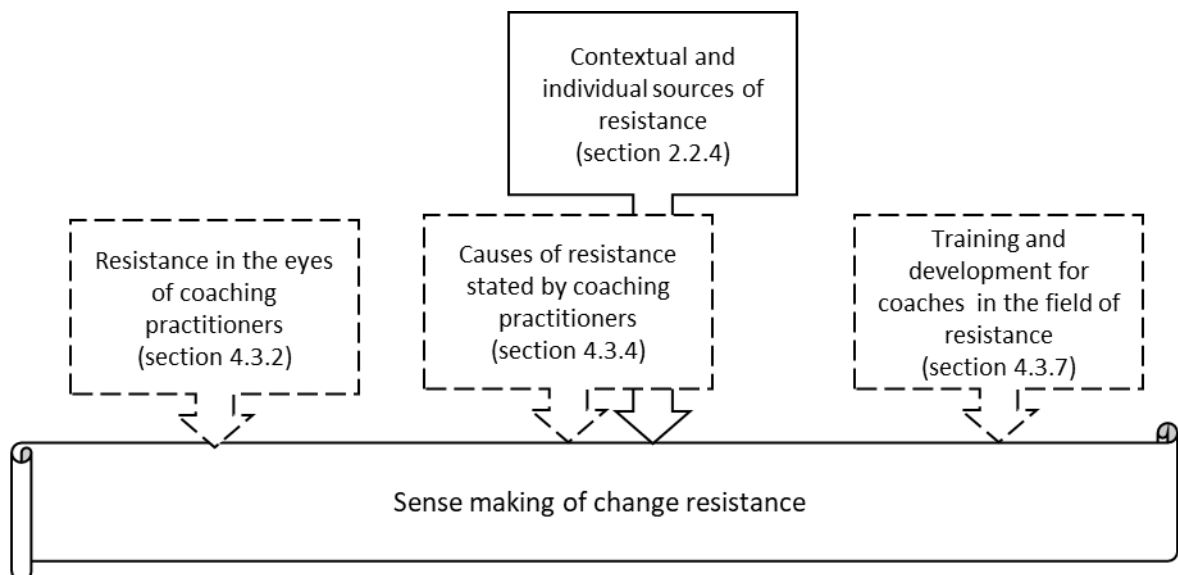
Fourth, resistance arises at different times either immediately following a change or deferred, depending on the change event and its implementation (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 615). Additionally, resistance can occur at each step of the individual change process (George & Jones, 2001). The data underlines existing research as it shows that there are two types of resistance which could occur in the coaching context: resistance to the coaching itself and resistance to the coaching topic. The interviewees pointed out that an analysis of the coachee, in terms of whether they are willing to be coached, is performed upfront of the coaching. However, even most of the coachees agreed with the coaching methodology, their resistance could be originated in the topic of the coaching process. For example, it might be that the coachees only agree to the coaching because of the pressure of their organisations. Moreover, the coachees could be resistant to the coaching topic that is being coached. Later in this chapter, the differentiation between the two types of resistance is investigated further.

In summary, the understanding and evaluation of resistance is dependent on the interviewees' interpretation of a particular behaviour, a cognitive state or a perceived emotion in the coaching process. This interpretation is based on individual schemas that are developed by the coach and the coachee from former experiences. Thus, the social environment and personality of the coach and the coachee influence the understanding of resistance. Thereby, resistance is evaluated differently, varying from a valuable feedback to what usually expected in a coaching process or to the rejection of the change.

5.2 How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?

How coaches make sense of resistance can be derived from the following three topics identified in this study: First, the understanding of resistance; second, the indicators of resistance; and third, the sources of resistance. Thus, the understanding of resistance determines what is assessed as an indicator of resistance by the coaches and therefore affects the coaches' sense making of resistance. Furthermore, the coaching assignment contexts are potential sources of resistance and could, therefore, be used for this sense making. As the sense-making of coaches might be influenced by training and development activities, the training and development of coaches in the area of change resistance is additionally discussed here. The findings are derived from the sections of the thesis, as outlined in figure 25.

Figure 25: Sense making of change resistance - considered thesis sections

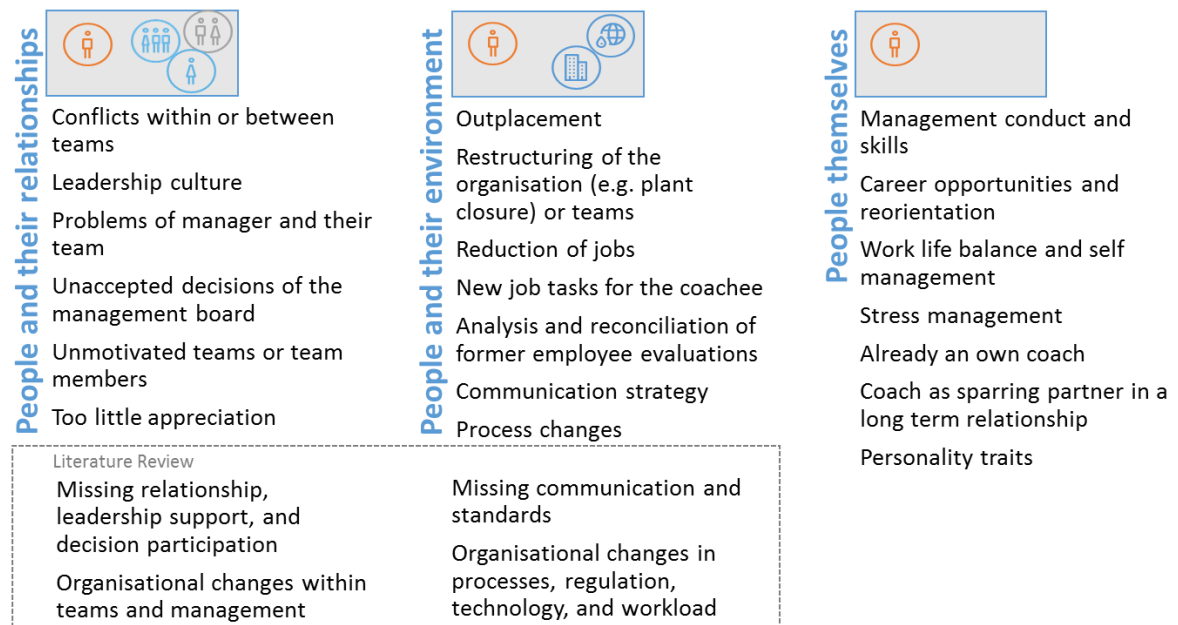


5.2.1 Sources and indicators

This study extends previous literature by specifying detailed sources and indicators of resistance at the workplace. Existing literature is limited to the description of characters and objectives of a resistor, for example, an employee that is opposed to the change with a dispositional inclination to change resistance (Bareil, 2013). This research expands the discussion by narrowing it down to a more detailed level and identifying specific indicators that signalise resistance in a coaching context. However, the results of this study indicate that resistance is expressed in the body language, behaviour, and emotion of the coachee. Thus, the identification of resistance requires the coach to have a holistic view of the coachee.

Different resistance sources, outlined by the interviewees are embedded in coaching assignment contexts, which are extended by individual sources. These contexts can be manifold and occur at different points during a coaching or organisational change process. Thus, specific coaching assignment contexts and individual sources could increase the risk of emerging resistance and therefore signal the possibility of resistance occurring. In figure 26 on the following page coaching assignment contexts identified in this study are outlined and supplemented by the organisational sources identified in the literature review (Bruckman, 2008; Frahm & Brown, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016).

Figure 26: Comparison of coaching assignment contexts/ organisational sources between literature and empirical data



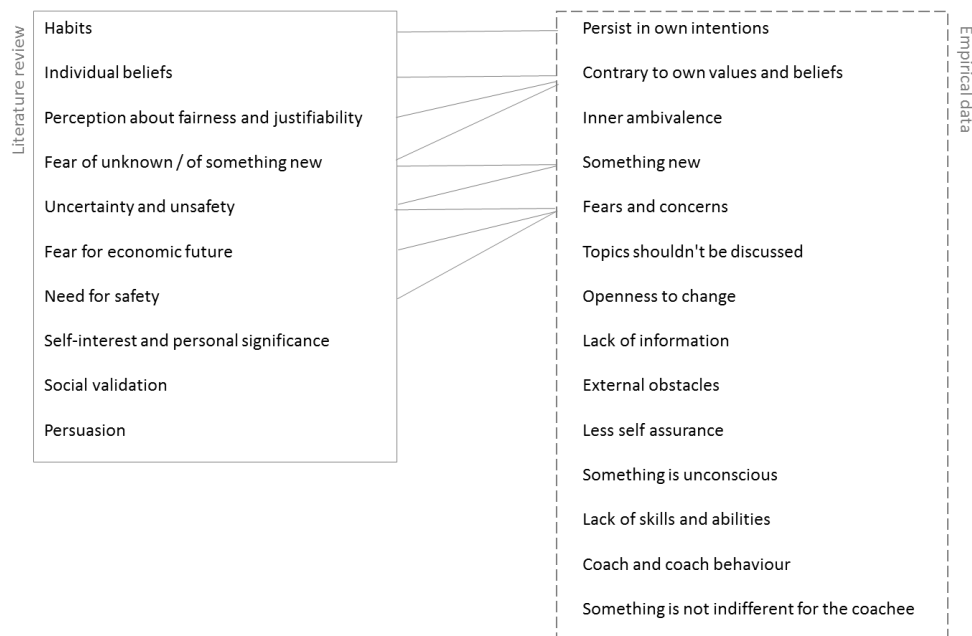
Although some literature indicates an organisational context (e.g. leadership) as one source of resistance, this turned out to be too non-specific in comparison to the empirical survey. For example, the literature states missing leadership support as one source of resistance (Frahm & Brown, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016). It does not explain what exactly leadership support means. This study specifies that the behaviour of the leader, such as appreciation, is key to manage resistance successfully.

Moreover, it seems that resistance resulting from the category of the coaching assignment context “the people themselves” is mainly unattended. Research data implies that coaching assignments which are organised by the organisation for the individual development of their employees—such as career coaching or work-life balance—could be potential resistance sources. Previous studies concentrates on coaching assignments that are

conducted either in the context of the relationship between people (e.g. team conflict), or in the context of people and their environment (e.g. new working tasks) (Amarantou et al., 2018; Bailey & Raelin, 2015; Bruckman, 2008; Frahm & Brown, 2007; Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). In a brief summary this thesis discovers a further category, the category “people themselves”, which was overlooked in previous research. Organisational sources, discussed in the literature, include only two of the three context categories (Amarantou, Kazakopoulou, Chatzoudes, & Chatzoglou, 2018).

Next, the individual sources of resistance are discussed. Both the literature (e.g. Bailey & Raelin, 2015) and the interviewees listed individual sources of resistance, as identified in figure 27.

Figure 27: Comparison of individual resistance sources between literature (Bailey & Raelin, 2015; Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616) and empirical data



This thesis gives more examples of individual sources than the previous literature. As shown in figure 27 on the previous page, literature outlines 10 sources, this study identified 14 sources. Furthermore, the similarities between the literature and this research, presented through the connecting lines, demonstrate that the majority of the individual sources within the literature are confirmed by this study (Bailey & Raelin, 2015; Jost, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 616). For example, the literature states uncertainty and the fear of economic future as resistance sources. These are mentioned from the interviewees as well. However, the figure pointed out that there are several new sources identified, such as “external obstacles” and “less self-assurance”.

In addition, according to the interview participants, the diagnosis of resistance is supported by different attributes of a coach, such as empathy, building rapport, and intuition. All these attitudes help the interviewees to better understand the coachees, building a strong coach-coachee relationship, and hence be more successful in dealing with coachee’s resistance. With regards to intuition, it is widely discussed in the literature (e.g. Mavor, Sadler-Smith, & Gray, 2010; Sheldon, 2018; St. Pierre & Smith, 2014) and often described as something that develops alongside working experience. However, it is ambiguous to what extent intuition helps or confuses a coach in their responses to a coachee, and how it is used by coaches (Bachkirova, 2016; de Haan, 2008a; Reitz, 2009; Sheldon, 2018). This study could fuel the debate further as intuition is identified as an essential attribute to the specific coaching context of resistance.

Moreover, although the interviewees keep negative indicators of resistance, such as anger or resignation (see section 4.3.3), or at least a neutral state of the resistor, they evaluated resistance as positive and normal during change initiatives. Resistance is considered useful

during a change process, it should take place because otherwise change is not given enough attention and is not considered to be important by the coachee.

Some interviewees associated resistance with a positive state of the resistor. Of these, the positive state was presented as astonishment and this could be explained using the resistance definition of these interviewees.

“So my idea of resistance is ... that's something the person has not thought of yet” (Interviewee 16).

The most apparent findings to emerge from this study are that resistance is seen as useful, but is shown by the coachee through predominantly neutral or negative indicators.

Whereas literature lacks a detailed level of indicators interviewees mentioned a wide range of them describing how they identify resistance (McGuinness & Cronin, 2015). Further indicators to denote resistance are expressed by the coachees through their demonstrated behaviour, body language, and emotions. Since most indicators have been identified in the area of demonstrated behaviour, these are systematically clustered into groups as showed in in table 19 on the following page.

Table 19: Behavioural indicators of resistance

Category of behaviour demonstrated	Behaviour demonstrated
Vocal expressions including typical statements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sentences starting with “Yes, but” • Generalising statements, such as “somebody could” • Rhetoric like “that brings nothing” or “I don’t see why I should do that.” • Evasive, distracting, or affirmative answers • The speaking of the coachee increases • Making a joke of the discussed topic • Laughing • Swearing • Tears
Coachee shows unreliability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coaching dates are not respected or postponed • Tasks were not performed as agreed • Arriving too late
Coachee shows unwillingness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Silence • Aloofness • Lack of acceptance • Persist in beliefs • Do not get involved • Process comes to a halt • Conflict
Unconscious behaviour of the coachee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being lost in thoughts
Coachee tries to deceive the coach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate pro forma in the coaching sessions • Being dishonest • Become touchy • Being sick

In fact, according to these indicators, resistance is often actively and consciously expressed by the coachee’s behaviours. These indicators are accompanied by the coachee’s body language and emotions, such as anger, fear, and shame. Additionally, the coachees in their resistant state varies between being stressed, concerned, frustrated, grieved, or resigned.

Besides these negative moods, the coachee could also be astonished or pleased in the eyes of the interviewees, depending on the definition of resistance the interviewees have.

In summary, this sub-section looked at sources and indicators of resistance to answer the second research sub-question *RQ2: How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?* In answer, coaches recognise resistance from its sources as they perceive these sources as indicators that help to identify resistance. These sources can be described both by different contexts of the coaching task, such as outplacement activities of an organisation, and/or by individual reasons, such as fears and concerns of the coachee. Furthermore, they perceive resistance through demonstrated behaviours, body language, and noticed emotions. Likewise, many coaches seem to have an inner feeling such as intuition and tact that helps to recognise resistance. This last finding encourages the discussion as to whether everybody can learn to be a coach because there is the question of how intuition can be learned and trained. The author assumes that these inner feelings are often grounded in specific observable factors reflected in the behaviour of the coachee. Hence, the author suggests that further research is required to investigate these inner feelings and increase the transparency of diagnosis options.

As explained previously, the understanding of coaching and change resistance is heterogeneous. Therefore, concerning the research question of this study, it is essential to understand how training and development initiatives prepare coaching professionals to manage change resistance. Hence, this study will next explore how coaches are trained and developed in the context of change resistance.

5.2.2 Training and development of coaches

The data suggests that whereas resistance is an important topic in the coaching process, it is rarely considered in the training and development offer for coaches. Hence, this research could be a foundation to start on the conceptualising of resistance training.

An analysis of the training and development market during this research, which is described in detail in appendix H, indicates that there is some formal education for coaches addressing change resistance, but only as one topic alongside others. However, it is unclear exactly what the content of this formal education about resistance is. Furthermore, it cannot be assumed that all coaches, who are confronted with resistance during their coaching sessions have a formal education. Thus, the empirical investigation of this study addresses how coaches acquired their knowledge about resistance.

This research indicates that knowledge about dealing with resistance is gained by experience and supervision, whereas training as a knowledge source is negligible. According to the analysis of the training offered by certified national and European associations, there is no training offered particularly for the resistance context. However, 42% of the training on offer could be assumed to include some aspects of resistance as they outline a focus on cognate disciplines that are supposed to discuss resistance, such as organisational change management. In 7% of the training, resistance is mentioned in the training description. Within the frameworks of international associations like the EMCC, handling of resistance is listed as one competence a coach should have. The importance of that competency is also pointed out by the interviewees. However, only one participant, who works as a coaching educator, stated that resistance is handled as a specific sub-theme in his training. All other interviewees who are working as business coach educators, stated that resistance is an integrated part of their training offering, for example, integrated into leadership issues.

With regards to the potential of specific training for resistance, almost 50% of the interviewees agreed that resistance should be included as part of training in related fields, such as a training in the field of change management, because resistance is always only one piece of a more comprehensive topic. The other interviewees concluded that dedicated training is necessary as resistance is a very relevant topic that often faces the coaches. Overall, only a few interviewees had an overview of the training being offered on the market and most of the interviewees were not aware if, and how, resistance is currently trained. Accordingly, only a few gather their knowledge in the area of resistance via coaching training. Consequently, the majority outlined experience and self-development as the main sources for dealing with resistance.

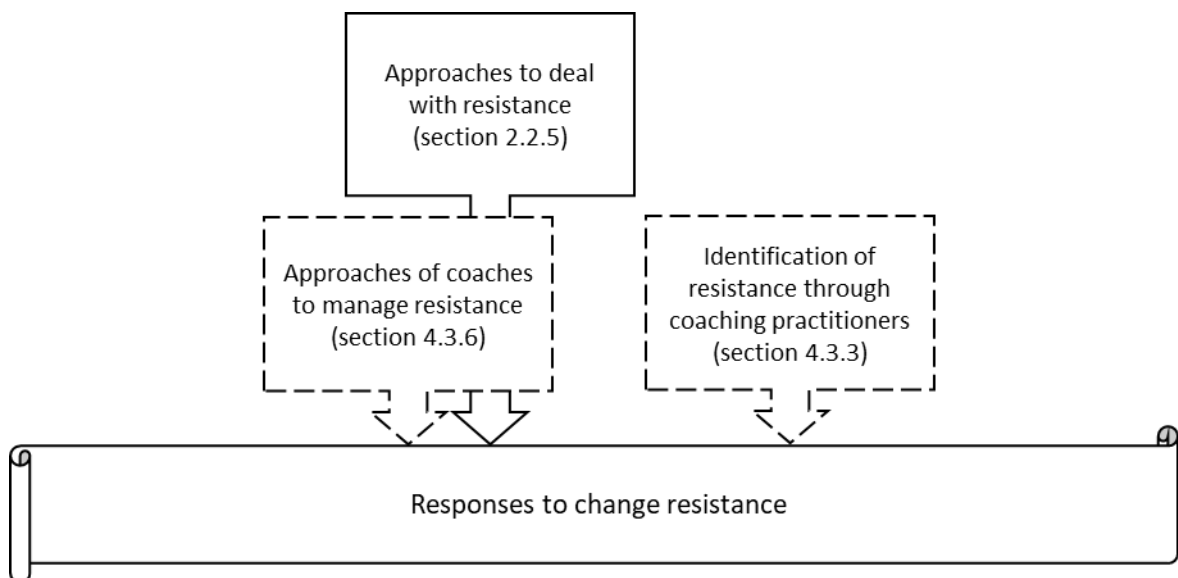
Based on their training, and the participation in resistance related training, the interviewees identified some key learnings that could be used as a starting point for the context of resistance related training for coaches. Hence, the content of resistance training should at least include guiding principles and suggested methods, as presented in appendix I.

In summary, although dealing with resistance is outlined as a coaching competence, dedicated training for coaching in situations with resistance is very limited. In addition, knowledge about the training market by interviewees is rather low and coaching competencies how to deal with resistance are mainly developed through experience and supervision.

5.3 How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?

This section addresses the third research sub-question *RQ3: How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?* Figure 28 shows the structure and appropriate sub-sections of this thesis that present the approaches to deal with resistance.

Figure 28: Responses to change resistance – considered thesis sections



First, this research is in accordance with previous studies which outline that the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of the coachee should be considered (Hall & Hord, 2011, pp. 70–75). Accordingly, interviewees mentioned, for example, working with thoughts and feelings of the coachee in different roles that are addressed to the coachees’ inner team, in order to identify and analyse them both in more detail and from several perspectives.

Second, empirical data confirms that an open and in-depth communication with coachees is crucial to achieve a transparent changing process and thus to facilitate dealing with resistance. However, contrary to previous literature, this thesis indeed highlights that a

meaningful communication is more efficient than repetitive communication of the same information to deal with resistance (Jost, 2015, pp. 22–41). Moreover, interviewees pointed out that being creative and thinking outside the box is an important approach to deal successfully with resistance.

Third, and contrary to the literature (e.g. Paren, 2015), this study suggests further investigating approaches dealing with resistance that facilitate and support the coachee rather than focus on education and communication. The approaches mentioned by the interviewees are sorted in accordance with the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) and listed in table 20 on the following page. This model is chosen as a classification framework because it is evidenced by a number of researchers (Bareil, 2013; Bruckman, 2008; Greif, 2007; McKay et al., 2013). Therein, six general methods of dealing with resistance are presented. Nearly all approaches to deal with resistance mentioned by the interviewees could be linked to these six general methods (see table 20 on the following page). Further, the majority of the approaches are associated to more than one method in Kotter's model, importantly, approaches that facilitate and support are the most frequently applied ones.

Table 20: Participant approaches to deal with resistance classified in the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979)

Methods	Education/ Communi- cation	Participation/ Involvement	Facilitation/ Support	Negotiation/ Agreement	Manipulation/ Co-optation	Explicit/ Implicit Coercion
Approaches to cope with resistance						
Exploring and hypothetical questions	X	X	X	X	X	
Narrate similar stories from former coachees			X			
Observe and mirror	X	X	X	X	X	
Excuses by the coach				X		
Let the coachee paint pictures from the future			X			
Make the new imaginable			X			
Let the coachee test new things via trial and error in their lives			X	X		
Develop new courses of action			X	X		
Identify the meta objective	X	X	X	X	X	
Work with the inner team of the coachee			X			
Involve other people		X				
Work with metaphors	X					
Be provocative	X				X	
Build up skills and abilities on the coachee side			X			
Work with scenarios	X	X	X	X	X	X
Promote the understanding for the contrary side	X			X	X	
Set targets to be achieved for the next coaching	X	X	X	X	X	X
Show the dilemma of the coach, if the coachee does not collaborate					X	
Set anchor points for positive emotions and energy			X			
Reframing, Modelling			X			
Work with roles	X	X	X	X	X	
Encourage the coachee to think about personal challenges and problems				X	X	
Use the sponsor as argument					X	X
Σ	23	8	7	15	11	9

However, approaches to deal with resistance identified in the literature have a strong focus on communication and education as outlined in table 21 on the following page (Doolin et al., 2013; Ford & Ford, 2009; McKay et al., 2013; Paren, 2015).

Table 21: Literature approaches to deal with resistance classified in the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979)

Methods	Education/ Communi- cation	Participation/ Involvement	Facilitation/ Support	Negotiation/ Agreement	Manipulation/ Co-optation	Explicit/ Implicit Coercion
Approaches to cope with resistance						
Perceive a benefit for thoughts, beliefs and	X	X	X	X	X	
Clear and repetitive communication by change	X					
Establish a culture of tolerance by change leader	X					
Be interested in alternative views by change leader		X				
Consistent behaviour with the change initiative by change agent	X					
Be aware of own limitations and preconditions by the resistor						
Install a monitoring process by the organization						
Motivation of whole groups for participation via group meetings		X				
Align change objects with organisational culture	X					
Trained change leaders to overcome communication barriers	X					
Strong involvement of top management	X					
Be empathetic to find out the determining concerns	X		X	X		
Make the change impact transparent	X		X			
Demonstration of organisational capacities by the top management				X		
Detailed information about the change and its characteristics	X					
Σ	15	10	3	3	1	0

In literature, there is no differentiation in the adopted approaches between resistance to the coaching topic or to the coaching itself (Doolin et al., 2013; Ford & Ford, 2009; McKay et al., 2013; Paren, 2015). However, within this study, a difference between resistance to the coaching itself and resistance to the coaching topic were observed. For resistance to coaching, the interviewees pointed out three approaches whereas only “being provocative” was also mentioned as an approach for resistance to the coaching topic. All three approaches, shaded grey in table 22 on the following page, can be clustered to the two harmful methods of manipulation and coercion.

Table 22: Participant approaches to deal with resistance to coaching itself

Methods	Education/ Communi- cation	Participation/ Involvement	Facilitation/ Support	Negotiation/ Agreement	Manipulation/ Co-optation	Explicit/ Implicit Coercion
Approaches to cope with resistance						
Exploring and hypothetical questions	X	X	X	X	X	
Narrate similar stories from former coachees			X			
Observe and mirror	X	X	X	X	X	
Excuses by the coach				X		
Let the coachee paint pictures from the future			X			
Make the new imaginable			X			
Let the coachee test new things via trial and error in their lives			X	X		
Develop new courses of action			X	X		
Identify the meta objective	X	X	X	X	X	
Work with the inner team of the coachee			X			
Involve other people		X				
Work with metaphors	X					
Be provocative	X				X	
Build up skills and abilities on the coachee side			X			
Work with scenarios	X	X	X	X	X	X
Promote the understanding for the contrary side	X			X	X	
Set targets to be achieved for the next coaching	X	X	X	X	X	X
Show the dilemma of the coach, if the coachee does not collaborate					X	
Set anchor points for positive emotions and energy			X			
Reframing, Modelling			X			
Work with roles	X	X	X	X	X	
Encourage the coachee to think about personal challenges and problems				X	X	
Use the sponsor as argument					X	X
Σ	23	8	7	15	11	3

A possible explanation might be that only the minority of the interviewees accept a coaching assignment related to resistance to coaching itself. However, the participants could mention only three approaches in order to deal with resistance to the coaching. These are very few compared to the amount of approaches they mentioned to deal with resistance to the topic. Thus, it is concluded that the coaches may know less about dealing with resistance to coaching than about dealing with resistance to the coaching topic.

In summary, the identified approaches, both in the literature and through empirical data, cover all six general methods of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979). Of these, only a few approaches that deal with resistance to coaching could be identified and these are related to the harmful methods of manipulation and coercion. This finding indicates that external

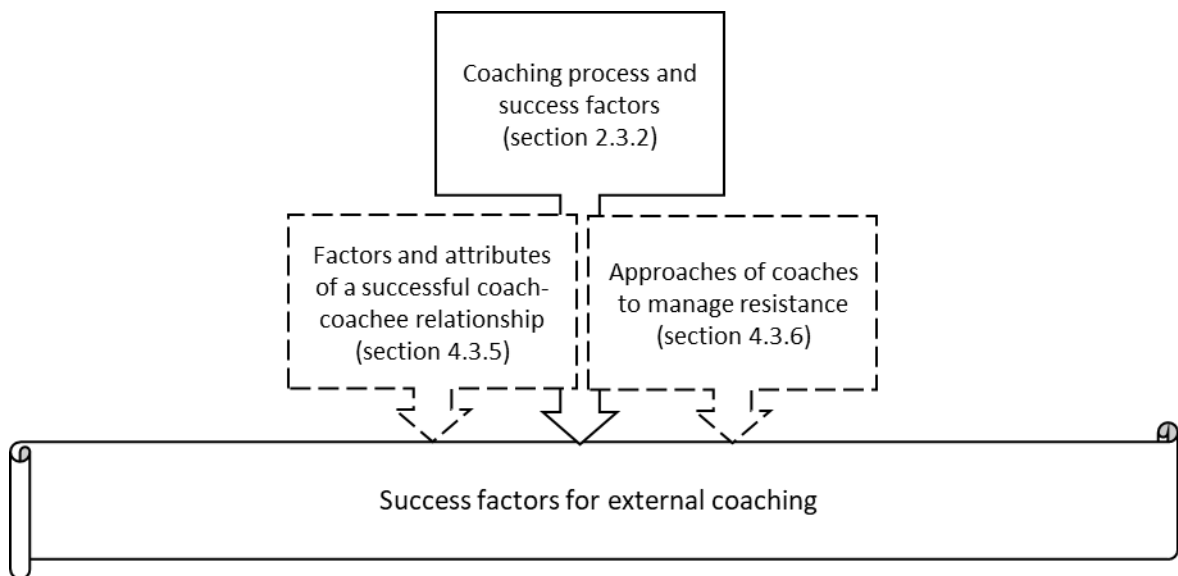
coaching may be more suitable for resistance to the coaching topic than for resistance to the coaching itself.

According to the researcher, it can also be supportive for dealing with resistance to create a coaching environment based on the coaching success factors described in the next section.

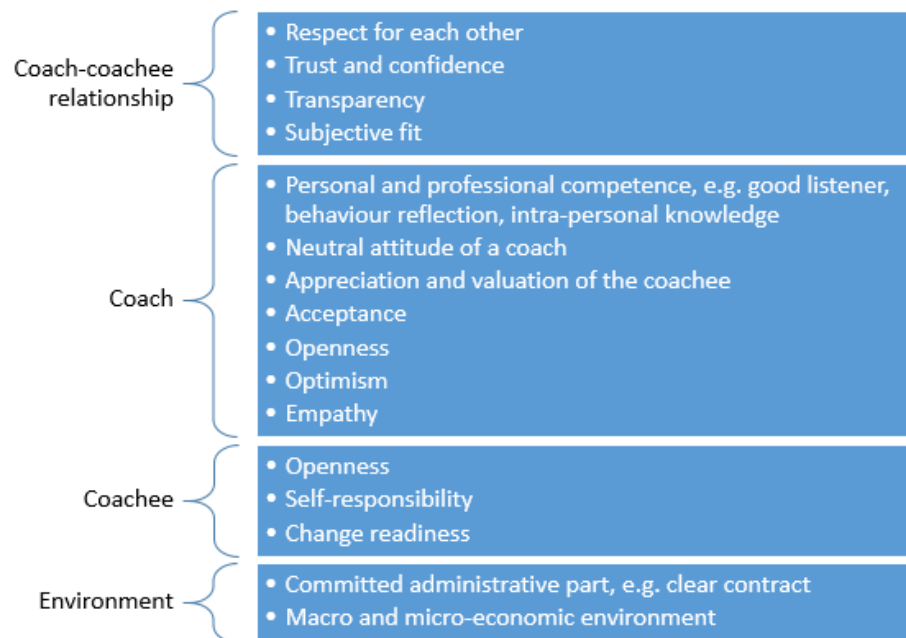
5.4 What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?

This section presents factors of coaching that contribute to manage change resistance. Overall, there is very little research available about success factors in the coaching context of resistance (de Haan et al., 2010). However, the data underlines previous literature by finding similar factors of coaching in the specific context of resistant coachees. The findings are derived from the sub-sections of the thesis, as outlined in figure 29 on the following page.

Figure 29: Success factors for external coaching - considered thesis sections



The research participants were asked about the success factors of external coaching to deal with resistance. Figure 30 on the following page outlines the main success factors that were identified by this empirical study in relation to the coach, the coachee, the environment of the coaching, and the coach-coachee relationship.

Figure 30: Success factors for coaching in a resistance context

With regards to roles in a coach-coachee relationship, the interviewees mainly confirmed the findings of the extant literature. The majority of the participants agreed that coach and coachee should have a balanced relationship—where the coachee is on a par with the coach—which is comprised of respect, trust, transparency, and the subjective fit (Baron & Morin, 2009; Boyce et al., 2010). A few interviewees stated that there is an imbalance in this relationship and the literature describes this imbalance as “one up-ness” for the coach and “one down-ness” for the coachee (Schein, 2009, pp. 31–36). It was interesting to note that none of the interviewees saw the coachee in a leading position, as is suggested by Gessnitzer and Kauffeld (2015).

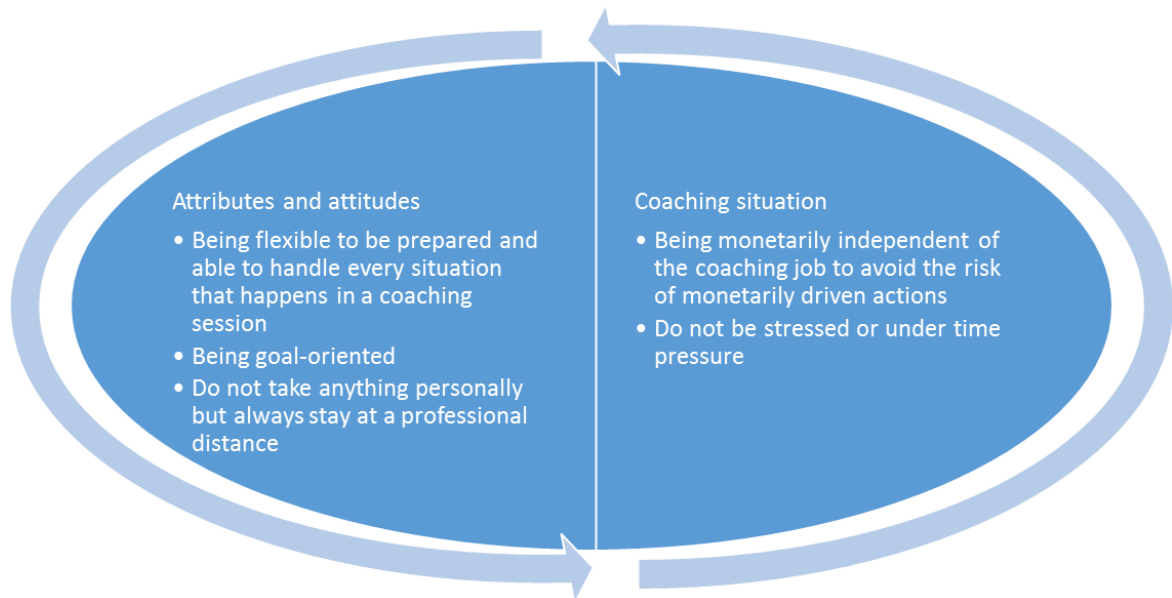
In line with the literature, interviewees mentioned an environment of trust as one main success factor and determined the coach-coachee relationship as essential for coaching success (Bareil, 2013; Grant, 2003).

The success factors for a coach and a coachee identified in this study are similar to those in previous literature (Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Ford et al., 2008). In particular, with regards to coaching in the context of resistance one major success factor is the change readiness of the coachee (Chung, Su & Su 2012; Holt & Vardaman, 2013; Amick, & Lee 2008).

The interview data also supports the literature by stating that it is essential to be aware of both the macro and micro-economic factors in the environment where the coaching sessions are performed, such as the political and business situation (Du Toit, 2011; Holt & Vardaman, 2013). This environment also includes the awareness of the coachee's personal background. Remarkably, in the literature, the awareness of the personal background of the coach and the coachee as success factors are described very little and only based on studies in a particular context, for example, in the military (Boyce et al., 2010; Sonesh et al., 2015). Nevertheless, there are recent studies that suggest seeing coaching as a social process which indicates the importance of the personal background of the coachee and the awareness of their own bias by the coach (Shoukry & Cox, 2018). According to the author of this study, however, the coach's awareness for the coachee's environment is all the more important than the coachee's awareness for the coach's personal background. This is because a professional coach should be able to avoid their own personal background having a substantial impact on their work. However, the knowledge about the personal background of the coachee can encourage the coach to better understand the feelings and way of thinking expressed by the coachee.

Furthermore, the data expands the literature because the interviewees outlined five additional aspects with regards to attributes and attitudes, and the coaching situation. It is implied that these should be considered by the coach to have a positive impact on the coach-coachee relationship, as shown in figure 31 on the following page.

Figure 31: Influencing factors of a coach for a successful coach-coachee relationship



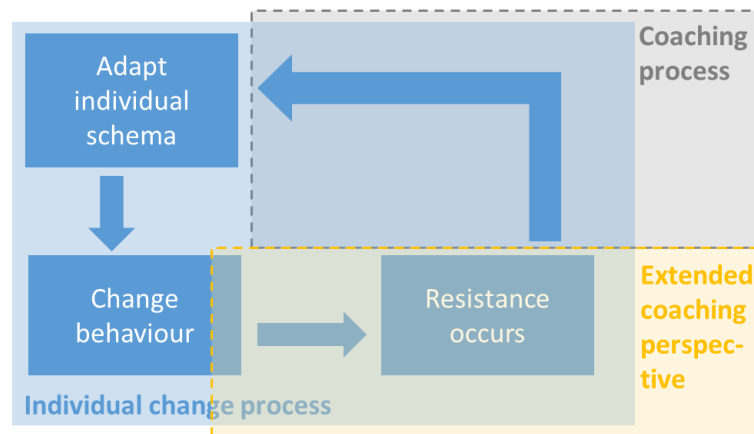
In summary, there is very little research available about success factors in the coaching context of resistance (de Haan et al., 2010). However, the comparison of the results of earlier research with the results of this study shows: Most success factors in the context of managing resistance in a coaching process are equal to the success factors identified in previous literature without an explicit link to resistance. In both cases they depend on the coach, the coachee, their relationship and the environment where the coaching takes place. An emphasis lays on the coach-coachee relationship and how this could be improved by the coach when they are facing resistant coachees. The similarity of the success factors should encourage a further discussion whether resistance was possibly also included in the research objects of previous literature but not consciously considered. This argument is supported by the finding, that the interviewees understood resistance as a normal, very frequently occurring factor in the coaching process. *“There is no change without resistance, resistance is part of a change, as is the fact that the grass is green ... because if there is no*

resistance at all, then it is more of a concern to me” (Interviewee 9). Thus, resistance is even outlined as essential in the changing process by the interviewees. The participants interpreted the absence of resistance as a lack of attention by the coachee that might reduce the success of the coaching process.

5.5 Discussion and the conceptual framing

The conceptual framing of this thesis is presented in section 2.4. The discussion of the research findings, as presented in sections 5.1 – 5.4 can be integrated into this conceptual framing as shown below in figure 32.

Figure 32: Integration of the discussion into the conceptual framing



The discussion shows that a successful coaching of resistant coachees requires an extended coaching perspective as initially assumed in the individual change process. This extension is marked in yellow in figure 32.

It turns out that resistance is recognised as a very common emotional reaction in the individual change process, which indicates that a coach should be aware of this when coaching a person who is required to be changed. The discussion with interviewees also shows that the understanding of possible sources of resistance makes the coach more sensitive to this issue. All in all, the research results indicate that the coach has to address the coachee not only in consideration of the coaching situation but also with regard to the environment of the coachee. This is necessary in order to increase the understanding and awareness of the coachee's individual situation and environment and to find appropriate ways to achieve the change of the individual schema and thus make the change possible.

The extended perspective a coach should apply when coaching an individual to change is also reflected in the theoretical contributions of this research that are presented in the next chapter. These contributions relate to the understanding of resistance, the resistance indicators and sources as well as the approaches to deal with resistance, and the importance to see the coachee as an individual which indicates the need to see coaching as a social process.

6 Conclusions

This chapter begins with a summary of the findings of this study, specifically with regards to the research question and four sub-questions. It then outlines the theoretical and practical contributions offered by these findings. The chapter concludes by examining the limitations of the research and its implications for further research opportunities in the field of coaching and resistance.

6.1 Summary of the thesis

The research was conducted in order to investigate the role external coaching plays to deal with individual change resistance in the workplace. Main findings are a list of detailed indicators that affect the body, emotion and behaviour of the coachee, for example silence, bearing, or tears. In addition, potential individual and organisational sources of resistance, such as the openness to change of the coachee or a change in the working task, are identified. Furthermore, the understanding of resistance is very broad, and resistance could occur against the coaching or against the change. The main success factors for coaching in a resistance context are a trustful coach-coachee-relationship and the competencies of the coach. In terms of training and development of the coach the interviewees stated that their knowledge of how to manage resistance is mainly generated via experience and supervision, appropriate trainings on the market are missing and less known.

The research aims of this study were to identify four aspects: understanding of resistance from perspective of an external coach, coaches' sense making of resistance, methods to respond to it, and success factors of external coaching that help to deal with resistance.

Therefore, the author conducted 21 semi-structured interviews with experienced external business coaches and business coach educators to investigate the practitioner view on coaching in the context of resistance. The research sub-questions were answered by the following findings:

RQ1: What is understood as resistance to change within the context of external coaching?

The results of this study underline existing literature in explaining resistance as a cognitive state, as behaviour, or as an emotional state. In addition to literature, the research has shown that resistance is not only seen as positive or negative, but is also recognised as the coachee's response usually expected by the coach during a coaching process. Thus, resistance is seen as neutral without being perceived as positive or negative.

RQ2: How do external coaches make sense of resistance to change in the coaching process?

Literature about approaches to diagnose resistance by coaches is limited to the description of the character and objectives of a resistor. This research, however, has identified specific visible indicators, for example frustration, that signalise resistance in an external coaching context. Moreover, this study has found that coaching competencies to deal with resistance are mainly developed through experience and supervision, as the training market is insufficient and not well known by practitioners. However, through this empirical research, a number of contextual and methodological aspects has been analysed, that should be conceptually considered in training coaches to manage resistance.

RQ3: How do external coaches respond to resistance to change?

This empirical data on resistance management approaches reflects previous literature that outlines methods in the areas of education and communication, participation and

involvement, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, and manipulation and coercion. Although the literature focus on approaches of communication and education, this study highlights approaches to facilitate and support the coachee.

RQ4: What are the coaching success factors in addressing resistance to change?

Leading success factors has been investigated through this study. These factors are attributes of the coach, the coachee, the coach-coachee relationship, and the coaching environment. For example, important success factors for an external coach include the appreciation of the coachee and empathy towards the coachee.

This study contributes to the theories of organisational change, change management, and coaching. It extends the understanding of resistance and provides new insights how resistance could be identified. It further outlines approaches to deal with resistance that facilitate and support the coachee. Finally, this study underpins the current discourse (e.g. by Shoukry & Cox, 2018) to understand coaching as a social approach by pointing out that coaching should consider all social factors, bias and individual experiences of a coachee during the coaching process.

Overall, the results of this study show that external coaching can be used as a valuable approach to deal with resistance of the individual at their workplace when, according to the adjusted conceptual framing presented in section 5.5, there is an extended coaching perspective adapted. This perspective should consider already the change and the occurrence of resistance in the individual change process rather than solely concentrate on that part of the individual change process which takes place between resistance occurrence and schema change.

6.2 Theoretical contributions

This study advances research on individual resistance to change in the workplace and the benefit from external coaching. It invites further research by outlining three contributions that are related to three theoretical areas.

First, this study contributes to existing organisational change theory which overlooked individual factors. This thesis gives a new perspective on the individual factors in the changing process. It enhances the understanding of resistance as a prevalent employee response to organisational change and demonstrates, how coaches recognise resistance during the coaching process. Second, a theoretical contribution to change management theory is the identification and analysis of approaches to deal with resistance in a methodological area that is less explored in literature. This research provides a broader view on resistance management as it provides more approaches to deal with resistance. In addition, it suggests that further research should investigate the approaches to facilitate and support a coachee. Finally, this study contributes to coaching theory. It specifies that explicitly in a situation of resistant coachees the coach is required to consider the social perspective of the coachee in order to successfully manage change resistance. The following sub-sections further discusses the original contribution of this study to existing research.

6.2.1 Contribution to the theory of organisational change

First, the findings of this study enhance the understanding of resistance by extending its definition, and providing a meaningful insight into the theory of employees' behavioural and emotional responses to organisational change, e.g. by presenting positive emotions as potential resistance indicators.

There is a consistency between the definition of resistance provided by coaching practitioners and existing literature. Both are reflecting on two paradigms which evaluate resistance as positive or negative (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Bareil, 2013; Ford et al., 2008; Klonek et al., 2014). If resistance is evaluated as positive, it is seen as a valuable feedback to the coach or the change leader. If resistance is negative, it is understood as a rejection of the change. Likewise, data from this study indicates that resistance is additionally perceived as normal or neutral without a positive or negative evaluation. This finding supports and develops the view of Lawrence (1969) who understands resistance as neither positive nor negative. Based on the findings of this study, normal means that resistance always occurs in change initiatives and is therefore regularly expected by the coach in this context. In contrast, neutral means that resistance is not expected regularly.

Even though prior research into organisational change theory emphasises the risk that resistance could occur during all change initiatives, the current discussion about resistance is limited to a positive and negative interpretation of resistance—a normal or neutral interpretation is therefore lacking (Bareil, 2013; Palmer, 2003, pp. 41–42). In addition, for a few coaches, resistance does not exist at all and they do not use this term. According to this finding, there is less research available that denies the existence of change resistance but, for example, suggests using the term change readiness to reflect “*a positive approach of framing change*” (Armenakis & Harris, 2009), with a similar view being suggested by Ford et al. (2008). A possible explanation is that they associate this term with stagnation in their coaching assignment that is not encouraged in an effective coaching relationship (de Haan, 2008b). The term resistance may imply—for these coaches—that they are unable to encourage the coachee to develop an approach to positive thinking and behaviour, rather than pointing out that they are always in a position to enable the coachee and the relationship being optimistic and confident.

Furthermore, this is one of the pioneering studies to investigate how resistance could be identified. This research identifies several visible indicators, for example, tears or silence of a coachee. These visible indicators are expressed by the coachees through their demonstrated behaviour and their body language. Additionally, some emotional indicators were identified, such as anger and fear, which could amplify the discussion about the role of emotions that occur during a change processes. Recent research into theory of employee response to organisational change addresses the emotional consequences of change and how this affects the satisfaction of its participants, but focuses less on visible indicators (Castillo, Fernandez, & Sallan, 2018). However, in previous research, emotions associated with resistance are examined as negative, such as mistrust, anger, and frustration (Aslam, Ilyas, Imran, & Rahman, 2016; Oreg, Bartunek, Lee, & Do, 2018; Ybema, Thomas, & Hardy, 2016).

Moreover, this study presents positive emotions as potential resistance indicators, for example, astonishment, which was not mentioned in previous literature. A possible explanation is that the coaches understand resistance as a positive reaction in the coaching process. In this case, the participant replied that they recognised resistance because the coachee was confronted with something new that the coachee had not thought about earlier.

This finding is supported by Lazarus' theory of emotions (1991a, pp. 198–225), through research focusing on people in a positive mood (Johnson & Tversky, 1983; Nygren, Isen, Taylor, & Dulin, 1996; Taylor & Brown, 1988), as well as research into the influence of communication on emotions (Richardson & Denton, 1996). The findings of such research are combined in this study to support the suggestion that positive emotions can be identified as indicators for resistance.

In the theory of emotions, three appraisal stages are outlined in a change process where emotions occur (Lazarus, 1991a, pp. 198–225). First, a person determines if the change has any influence on their goals and their situation. When the person recognises that the change is relevant for them, they proceed to the second appraisal stage. This second stage is determined by the evaluation of the meaningfulness of the change, the opportunities to react to the change, and the future expectations going along with the change. The third appraisal stage concerns the emotions occurring based on the outcome of the change (Lazarus, 1991b).

In the context of this study, a coachee may show resistance during the second or third appraisal stage if they realise in the first appraisal stage that the change is related to their work. For example, in the second appraisal stage, a coachee, who is in a good mood because he is generally satisfied with the status quo of his work, questions the meaningfulness of the change. Explicitly, people being in positive moods are a focus of previous research and it is suggested that they often overestimate their control over the world and the results they will receive; and consequently, underestimate the likelihood of negative outcomes (Johnson & Tversky, 1983; Nygren et al., 1996; Taylor & Brown, 1988). According to such research, the incomprehension of the coachee should be overcompensated because the negative outcomes of the change were underestimated. Therefore, at this time it can be assumed that the coachee does not show resistance. If, in this situation a coach communicates with the coachee, the research of Richardson and Denton (1996) becomes relevant. Herein, it is explained that communication focusing on issues of importance to the individual can influence the individual interpretations of a situation, and consequently their underlying emotions (Richardson & Denton, 1996). In the context of the coaching example, the coach and the coachee discuss the change and its implications for the coachee, such as the important issue of the meaningfulness of the change. Based on the research of

Richardson and Denton, these are the conversational contents that lead to a new assessment of the situation and have an influence on emotions. Transferred to coaching, there is a high likelihood that if the coachee understands the meaningfulness of the change, his general positive mood leads to a positive interpretation of the change; combined with the expression of positive emotions. These positive emotions could be recognised as an indicator for resistance if coaches associate resistance not solely with negative emotions of the coachee, but also with positive ones.

During a change process, the coachee can also show resistance within the third appraisal stage, the outcome of the change (Lazarus, 1991b). The following example shows that positive and negative emotions do not only appear in isolation as indicators of resistance, but also in combination. For example, in the second appraisal stage the coachee accepts that a process change in his daily work is necessary because his team has to perform more tasks based on the retirement of a colleague. However, it turns out that the new software that should support this process change does not work according to the expectation of the coachee. Therefore, the coachee goes over to a resistant stage by ceasing to work with that software and complaining about it to their colleagues. In this case, the coachee shows negative resistance during the third appraisal stage—the outcome of the change—but can be in a positive mood because the change itself was recognised as positive. This is supported by the findings of previous research that several emotions experienced by an individual can coexist at the same time (Elfenbein, 2007; Klarner, By, & Diefenbach, 2011). In the coaching example provided, there is a positive emotion about the change and a negative emotion about the change outcome, and therefore, both emotions are offered by the coachee to express his resistance.

Overall, it could be argued that this study extends the literature regarding a coachee's response to organisational change by adding weight to the role of positive emotions as resistance indicators (Bareil, 2013; Lawrence, Ruppel, & Tworoger, 2014; Oreg et al., 2018). For example, astonishment shown by the coachee could be interpreted as a positive emotional indicator of resistance. The coachee is astonished because he faces inspiring new perspectives demonstrated by the coach, such as the change could be supportive for the coachee's career.

In summary, the findings of this study suggest that scholars should reassess the understanding of resistance in organisational change theory. For example, the theory of the resistance paradigm should be re-evaluated in order to clarify if the understanding of resistance can still be seen as "*two antinomical paradigms*" (Bareil, 2013). Based on the findings of this study, resistance is not just black or white (positive or negative) but instead has many facets which do not have to be as contrasting as is described in the literature. In fact, the understanding of resistance should be extended by the interpretation of resistance as normal and neutral, in order to reflect that resistance naturally occurs during change initiatives.

Moreover, the understanding of resistance affects what is perceived as indicators of resistance, indicators which are reflected in behavioural and emotional responses of the coachee to organisational change. Hence, this research enriches the discussion about resistance recognition and measurement, as stated, for example, by Choi and Ruona (2011), and McGuinness and Cronin (2015). This enrichment is illustrated by the identification of detailed indicators, such as positive emotional reactions, taking into account a broader understanding of the resistance term. Explicitly, positive emotional reactions are not yet included in theory of resistance.

6.2.2 Contributions to the theory of change management

Second, this research contributes to change management theory by providing new approaches to deal with resistance. These approaches aim to facilitate and support the coachee rather than concentrate on communication and education as outlined in previous research.

The most important model about dealing with change resistance in the context of organisational change is that of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979). Even its focus is on an organisational level the identified six methods are consistent with the findings of more recent studies (Bareil, 2013; Bruckman, 2008; Greif, 2007; McKay et al., 2013). However, as literature lacks a similar study with a focus on individual change, rather than on organisational change, the model of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) is used as a classification theme for the results of this study. Thereby, only two of the 23 identified approaches, including the improvement of the resistor's awareness, could not be classified into the suggested methods of Kotter and Schlesinger (1979). An example of this is the approach that states the resistor should improve their own awareness. This approach is not classifiable, as the model refers exclusively to methods that can be applied by a coach or manager. Previous research mainly suggests approaches assigned to the method of education and communication in order to deal with resistance, for example, aligning the change objects with the organisational culture (Klonek et al., 2014; McKenna, 2006, pp. 503–504). In contrast, the applied approaches to deal with resistance identified in this study focus on the method of facilitation and support, for example, to encourage the coachee to think about personal challenges and problems.

However, there is agreement in literature that approaches of both methods are suitable for dealing with resistance. For example, it is stated that facilitation plays a key role in helping

people to understand both the change itself and the actions they have to take related to the change (Harvey et al., 2002). Notably, there is no evidence available to suggest that approaches using education and communication are better suited to deal with resistance than approaches using facilitation and support. In fact, the suitability of approaches to deal with resistance depends on the speed of change, the extent of pre-planning, and the degree of participation of others (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008; Sirkin, Keenan, & Jackson, 2005). Nevertheless, it is not clearly defined which approach is better suited to which of the above factors (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008; Paren, 2015; Stragalas, 2010).

In summary, existing literature concentrates on approaches in the field of education and communication (Doolin et al., 2013; Ford & Ford, 2009; Klonck et al., 2014; McKay et al., 2013; McKenna, 2006; Paren, 2015). However, the data of this study indicates that approaches to deal with resistance that aim to facilitate and support should be highlighted more in the theoretical discussion of change management. Currently, they are underrepresented in the literature, although it is not evidenced that they are less successful for external coaches dealing with resistance than approaches of other methods.

6.2.3 Contribution to the coaching theory

Third, this study contributes to the current discourse on coaching theory by underlining the importance of coaching as a social process.

This study extends the recent theoretical argument on the coaching process (Shoukry & Cox, 2018) through identifying both indicators to distinguish, and approaches to deal with, resistance to change by the coachee. Shoukry and Cox (2018) argue coaching should be perceived as a social process instead of an instrumental tool to “transform” the coachee

into an organisational expected state. Indeed, the results of this study require that the coaching process increasingly considers the social perspective and does not focus only on organisational goals. For example, the findings suggest that working with the inner team of the coachee by considering the social environment of the resistor is a technique to manage resistance successfully. Furthermore, the research results demonstrate that positive emotions could be indicated as resistance to change, and that resistance to change should be considered from natural/neutral perspectives. A more integrative and critical position of the coach is proposed in order to encourage sustainable changes in the coaching process (Shoukry & Cox, 2018). In detail, coaches need to critically consider the social context of the coachee and support them to reflect on—and draw their conclusions from—it (Shoukry & Cox, 2018). This is underpinned by the finding that resistance has an interpretative and situational character which is based on individual schemas of the coach and the coachee. These schemas are developed through their former experiences in their lives and influence what is recognised as resistance and how this can be managed. Thus, the social environment and personality of the coach and the coachee should be considered dealing with resistance in a coaching process.

An integrative position of the coach is additionally reflected in the finding of this study. The direct questioning of a coachee about the reason for his resistance and the exploration of further opportunities to support him reveals to be helpful in overcoming resistance. Moreover, coaches need to be aware of their own social context and how it influences them (Bachkirova, 2007; Shoukry & Cox, 2018). Accordingly, it is identified in this study that intuition helps coaches to recognise resistance. Likewise, the literature outlines that intuition is influenced by the coach's expertise and by their self-awareness, and that intuition can be encumbered by stress and environmental constraints (Mavor et al., 2010; St. Pierre & Smith, 2014).

In addition, this study shows that success factors for coaching resistant coachees are similar to the ones identified by the literature (e.g. Du Toit, 2011; Grant, 2003; Holt & Vardaman, 2013) for coaching without an emphasis on resistance. Furthermore, this thesis results outline that resistance is normal and usually occurring in the coaching process for change. These findings suggest that successful coaching in the event of resistance could have a positive influence on the coaching result. The data also shows that the coachee with his whole social environment should be considered by the coach, as resistance can be better managed in this way. A combination of these both aspects can lead to the conclusion that coaching as a social process could better recognise and manage a resistant coachee and consequently improve the coaching result.

In summary, extending previous literature on coaching theory (Shoukry & Cox, 2018), this study identifies that when working in a resistant environment, coaches need to be empathetic as well as self-reflected in order to recognise and deal with resistance. Moreover, this research demonstrates that it is crucial for a coach to be aware of social contexts and to consider social influences in the coaching process. The coach needs to be open minded and sensitive in order to recognise indicators for resistance, always considering the uniqueness and social background of the coachee and of himself. The study suggests recognising and successfully managing resistance might have a more positive influence on the coaching outcome in comparison to coaching without an emphasis on resistance. Thus, by concentrating on external coaching in a resistant environment, this thesis underlines the importance to see the coaching process as a social process instead of a detached approach, and thereby paves the way to elaborate on coaching as a social process in theoretical research.

6.3 Contributions to professional practice

This thesis will be beneficial for professional practice because coaching plays a vital role in the business and working environment today. Higher demand for coaches to support organisational change management and performance improvement justifies the need for more effective and transparent approaches to deal with individual change resistance. Thus, this study offers a meaningful contribution to the professional community by bringing some light to the area of coaching in the context of resistance. Three groups are the assumed users of this research result. They are external coaches, organisations, and education and training providers, as described in the following sub-sections.

6.3.1 External coaches

When considering the first group, external coaches, this study helps them to be prepared for resistance in their daily work. First, based on the content of the coaching assignment, coaches could assume that resistance will come up during the coaching process, for example, if the coaching is about the restructuring of an organisation. Second, this assumption can be taken further as resistance could occur based on individual sources of the coachee, for example, the coachee has to learn something new. Third, coaches could identify resistance based on several indicators, for example, if the coachee begins a lot of their sentences with “Yes but” during the coaching process.

In addition, based on this study, coaches could apply several approaches to deal with resistance successfully. Thus, coaches should be aware of the context of resistance, differentiating between resistance directed towards the coaching itself and resistance to the coaching topic; in order to choose the appropriate approaches to deal with each type

of resistance. Even though success factors of coaching are well known—as they are valid for most of the coaching contexts—based on this study, an independent assortment of these success factors were identified as being also important for coaching in a resistant context. These selected success factors are enriched by several practical hints to improve the coach-coachee relationship.

6.3.2 Organisations

A practical contribution could be provided to a number of people within an organisation, including change leaders, line managers, and those responsible for HR. The findings of this study could broaden decision making about how to handle the obstacles of change they face in their daily business (Shaw, 2017). Change leaders and line managers could similarly benefit, as coaches could, from the findings of this study because selected coaching elements might be applied by change leaders and managers in their working environment (Chan & Burgess, 2015; Gavita, David, & Matu, 2013; Marsh, 1992). Further findings of this thesis about the understanding of resistance, and the approaches to deal with it, could strengthen their awareness in recognising resistance and provide tools for them to handle individual change resistance. By that, both the internal perspective of the change leader or manager, and their existing relationship to the resistor needs to be considered. The results of this study confirm those of existing research about the effectiveness of coaching in general (Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). In addition, the findings have the potential to support organisations and their HR departments in dealing with employees' individual change resistance because they show that hiring an external coach might be an alternative option to the internal ones (Gray Wilson, 2010; Rock & Donde, 2008a, 2008b).

6.3.3 Educators and training providers

One unexpected outcome produced by this study is that there is less transparency and less awareness of training opportunities for coaches in the area of resistance, although handling of resistance is mentioned as coach competence, for example by the EMCC (2015). It is further surprising given that resistance is one of the main topics in (practically oriented) literature on change management (ten Have, ten Have, Huijsmans, & Otto, 2016, pp. 29–63). Hence, this research underlines the importance and timeliness of the topic as well its interest to practitioners in enhancing their knowledge in the area of resistance. At least partly, the findings confirm that there might be a demand for training in this area. In particular, coaches with less experience and who have had fewer opportunities to take part in supervision were identified as a target group for this increased demand. Of note, however, is that such training does not need to focus only on resistance necessarily, but it could be worthwhile explicitly mentioning that resistance is a part of any courses offered.

Content wise, such training should highlight success factors and their related methods that could be specifically valuable for a coach receiving training about dealing with resistance. Thus, the results of this thesis are a first step in this direction as they suggest how—and what—should be taught to coaches to prepare them for resistant coachees. In particular, case studies that simulate a coaching situation with a resistant coachee might constitute a promising technique to prepare coaches for resistant situations. Moreover, some guiding principles for coaches are identified, for example, that resistance should not be ignored and the coach should have a high degree of self-reflection. Underpinned by these findings, it is therefore considered that educators and training providers could rework their course content to ensure they offer specific courses, or modules, on dealing with resistance.

6.4 Limitations of the research

Overall, this research study achieved the envisaged objectives. However, limitations did emerge in the research design, the scope of the research project, and the discovered results. There are several limitations related to the conducted interview strategy. Semi-structured interviews are followed by the requirement for a large amount of effort during the analysis as there is only a limited way of standardising analysis (King & Horrocks, 2010, pp. 158–160). Therefore, data is less comparable with regards to a standardised survey. Furthermore, the content and extent, and thus the success of interviews, are highly dependent on the skills of the interviewer (Kothari, 2004, p. 33). In addition, compared to qualitative surveys there is less external validity and reliability. For a high degree of external validity that outlines the degree of generalisation of research findings, the sample size should be larger than the sample size of this research (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 400). A further limitation of representativeness arises because the research was undertaken in Germany by a German researcher. Hence, the research findings are potentially influenced by German culture and traditions (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 400).

Nevertheless, a high degree of external reliability that aims to replicate a study and get similar findings is challenging to achieve because the social settings and environments of the interviewees could not be replicated (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). In addition, this study undertook a robust methodological process in order to ensure internal validity and reliability, for example, by adopting a rigorous data collection and data analysis process (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 48). Based on the rigorous qualitative research design (i.e. sampling strategy, data analysis) and the embeddedness of the study in the current (empirical) literature on change management, resistance, and coaching, the research

findings are expected to be generalisable to the field of external coaching. Hence, they offer revealing insights into this managerial practice.

6.5 Implications for further research

As this study is conducted through a qualitative design, it could provide motivation for others in the scholarly community to either underpin or reject the results through additional research activities. Thus, possible areas of further research in the field of dealing with change resistance by external coaching might be coaching, psychology, change management, HR management, and leadership. In the view of the author, this potential research should be distinguished based on the following five aspects.

First, further investigation could analyse the typical expression of the presented emotions and moods to identify more visible indicators that might convey resistance. Particular emphasis could be placed on voice and tone, gesture, facial expression, view, tiredness, breathing, and bearing. These physical indicators were mentioned by the interviewees as part of this study and could, therefore, be investigated in greater detail to specify more of the observable indicators. According to existing research it is, for example, suggested that brow lowering and mouth dimpling are facial indicators for frustration (Grafsgaard, Wiggins, Boyer, Wiebe, & Lester, 2013). Moreover, inner feelings, such as intuition, were mentioned as an important opportunity for a coach to identify resistance. These inner feelings should be investigated further in order to concretise what exactly is reflected by these inner feelings as well as how these inner feelings work.

Second, this thesis implies that external coaches could be supportive in dealing with the resistance of individuals. Nevertheless, there is, for example, a meta-analysis of 17 coaching

effectiveness research studies that demonstrates a better outcome for internal coaches than for external coaches in the area of workplace coaching (Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016). This analysis includes studies conducted mainly in the United States between 1997 and 2012, however, more recent literature also outlined a preference for internal coaches over external coaches (Rock & Donde, 2008a, 2008b). Nevertheless, it could be further analysed how internal coaching can be applied to the coaching contexts of resistance and how internal coaches operate in comparison to external coaches in Europe.

Third, the training market in the research field of this study is not transparent. It therefore needs further investigation as to what exactly is offered content wise, and whether this reflects the findings of this thesis. It could be questioned when, and to what extent, such training supports coaches. Thereby, the author recommends the need for a detailed look at all the courses and training material in case resistance is already included—something which is not apparent at first glance. In this thesis, a lot of the interviewed coaches do not have a primary coaching education. One reason was, for example, that no coaching education was offered in Germany when they started to coach. It could be investigated if coaches without any education are less supportive in dealing with resistance, and to what extent working experience is a critical aspect for it. Moreover, several success factors were identified in this study which should distinguish between a coachee, for example, openness and personal responsibility; and a coach, for example, optimism and empathy in order to manage resistance successfully. It could therefore be analysed whether, and how, a coach can positively influence these success factors. The results of such an analysis should be accounted for any training offered in overcoming resistance.

Fourth, it could be further researched whether approaches to deal with resistance could be developed starting on emotional signs of resistance. For example, if an increase in

responsibility could decrease anger, or what frustration could reveal about a desire of the resistor that might lead to a decrease in resistance (Persson, 2018; Sun, 2017). In addition, the author suggests a detailed investigation of how external coaches could influence individual change resistance based on the supportive factors identified in literature, such as what a coach could do to decrease the stress levels of coachees.

Finally, the results produced by this study indicate that manipulation or coercion approaches to deal with resistance are mostly adopted in cases where there is resistance to the coaching itself. It could be further analysed to what extent there are differences in the coaching approach depending on resistance to coaching, and resistance to the coaching topic.

7 Author's personal and professional development

I started my doctoral study at the University of Portsmouth in October 2015. At this time, I worked as a management consultant in the area of regulatory compliance and risk. Prior to this study, I had completed two degrees, a Bachelor of Industrial Management and a Master of Sustainable Economics. My motivation for this study combines my personal desires to both achieve an academic degree at an advanced stage in a topic outside of my work, and to support my career development further. It was obvious to me that working in the consultancy business five days a week was not my plan for the next 20 years. For example, I thought about splitting my working life between university and business by means of 3:2 days relationship.

During the first year of this study, I attended a course on professional development and learning in which I developed an action plan, as shown in table 23 on the following page. This summarises the lessons learned during my first year of experience and provided guidance on important points I wanted to pay attention to during the forthcoming journey. The variety of actions can be understood as personal enablers to ensure continuous professional development (Friedman, 2012, pp. 4–5 and 20).

Table 23: Personal Action Plan

Subject	Actions
Keep time capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Set priorities: Business vs. DBA -> What exactly is the conflict? - Work on business trips, e.g. during train/flight travel to use time slots - Don't concentrate on full day availability only - Ensure some flexibility for short-term vacation plans
Keep motivated	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Follow the claim "if you do not do it now you will do it never"
Keep in mind	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A DBA research topic that is independent from my current job in order to have the flexibility to change my job within the DBA period
Keep working pace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Develop working routines - Set personal deadlines and control its fulfilment - Create a working environment, e.g. home office place

Reflecting on the thesis stage of my study journey, various challenges have lined the way. The biggest challenge was the creation of free periods and their efficient use. It is not easy to coordinate professional requirements, private life, and study time. I have always tried to work on this study both on my professional trips and in my private time, and it should be noted that for about a year I have actually developed a routine regarding when and where

I allocate time for this. Due to external influences, however, this routine could not be maintained over the entire time. In addition, I have found that routines only help me to a limited extent to develop effectiveness in my work. Rather, I often need a change in place, time, and processes in order not to fall into a state of boredom. Nevertheless, I can confirm that continuous work on the study is helpful for continuous progress.

Another big challenge was the academic English, which I underestimated in advance. Based on my previous education and professional experience, I speak and write English more often now than before. However, the use of academic English placed completely new demands on me which I did not always find easy to implement.

A break in my study journey occurred due to a change of my first supervisor in the second year. It took some time until I realised that our working methods were too different from each other to allow us to work together in an effective way. In this context, it should be mentioned that the change of my supervisor on the part of the university was organised in a very efficient and effective way. I really appreciated this course of action.

In addition, I had a major concern about the empirical study. I was worried not only about finding enough participants, but whether they would understand the topic I was working on and how I (and they) could contribute to it. In retrospect, these concerns have turned out to be unfounded and the period of empirical investigation was a very exciting and interesting one. In conducting the 21 interviews, I have been able to improve my skills in conversation and questioning techniques.

In general, I can say that it was a very exciting experience to work on a topic for several years, where I have learned to prioritise, and considering how I really want to spend and use my time.

References

- Adams, J. (2007). *Research Methods for Graduate Business and Social Science Students*. New Delhi: Sage Publications Pvt. Ltd.
- Adams, M. (2016). Enable: A solution-focused coaching model for individual and team coaching. *Coaching Psychologist*, 12(1), 17–23.
- Allison, S., & Harbour, M. (2009). *The coaching toolkit: A practical guide for your school*. London: SAGE. doi: 10.4135/9781446215944
- Amarantou, V., Kazakopoulou, S., Chatzoudes, D., & Chatzoglou, P. (2018). Resistance to change: an empirical investigation of its antecedents. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 31(2), 426–450. doi:10.1108/JOCM-05-2017-0196
- Anderson, D., & Ackerman-Anderson, L. S. (2010). *Beyond change management*. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Pfeiffer.
- Anderson, L. R., & McGuire, W. J. (1965). Prior Reassurance of Group Consensus as a Factor in Producing Resistance to Persuasion. *Sociometry*, 28(1), 44-56.
- Armenakis, A. A., & Harris, S. G. (2009). Reflections: Our journey in organizational change research and practice. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(2), 127–142. doi:10.1080/14697010902879079
- Aslam, U., Ilyas, M., Imran, M. K., & Rahman, U. U. (2016). Detrimental effects of cynicism on organizational change: An interactive model of organizational cynicism (a study of employees in public sector organizations). *Journal of Organizational Change Management*(4), 580. doi:10.1108/JOCM-12-2014-0231

- Athanasopoulou, A., & Dopson, S. (2018). A systematic review of executive coaching outcomes: Is it the journey or the destination that matters the most? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(1), 70–88.
- Atkinson, P. (2014). How to implement change effectively. *Management Services*, 58(3), 33–38.
- Ayres, L., Kavanaugh, K., & Knafl, K. A. (2003). Within-case and across-case approaches to qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 13(6), 871–883. doi:10.1177/1049732303013006008
- Bachkirova, T. (2007). Role of coaching psychology in defining boundaries between counselling and coaching. *Handbook of coaching psychology: A guide for practitioners*, 351–366.
- Bachkirova, T. (2015). Self-deception in coaches: an issue in principle and a challenge for supervision. *Coaching*, 8(1), 4–19. doi:10.1080/17521882.2014.998692
- Bachkirova, T. (2016). The self of the coach: Conceptualization, issues, and opportunities for practitioner development. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 68(2), 143.
- Bachkirova, T., Arthur, L., & Reading, E. (2015). Evaluating a coaching and mentoring programme: Challenges and solutions. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 10(2), 175–189.
- Bailey, J. R., & Raelin, J. D. (2015). Organizations Don't Resist Change, People Do: Modeling Individual Reactions to Organizational Change Through Loss and Terror

- Management. *Organization Management Journal (Routledge)*, 12(3), 125–138.
doi:10.1080/15416518.2015.1039637
- Bareil, C. (2013). Two Paradigms about Resistance to Change. *Organization Development Journal*, 31(3), 59–71.
- Bareil, C., & Gagnon, J. (2005). Facilitating the Individual Capacity to Change. *Gestion 2000*, 22(5), 177–194.
- Baron, L., & Morin, L. (2009). The Coach-Coachee Relationship in Executive Coaching: A Field Study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 20(1), 85–106.
- Battilana, J., & Casciaro, T. (2012). Change Agents, Networks, and Institutions: A Contingency Theory of Organizational Change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(2), 381–398.
- Beaumier, C., Christensen, B., & DeLoach, J. (2012). Is the Organization's Compliance Approach Working? *Financial Executive*, 28(10), 30–33.
- Begg, I. M., Anas, A., & Farinacci, S. (1992). Dissociation of Processes in Belief: Source Recollection, Statement Familiarity, and the Illusion of Truth. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 121(4), 446–458.
- Bel, B. R., Smirnov, V., & Wait, A. (2018). Managing change: Communication, managerial style and change in organizations. *Economic Modelling*, 69, 1–12.
doi:10.1016/j.econmod.2017.09.001

- Ben-Gal, H. C., & Tzafrir, S. S. (2011). Consultant-client relationship: one of the secrets to effective organizational change? *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 24(5), 662.
- Bennett, J. L., & Bush, M. W. (2013). *Coaching for change*. Routledge.
- Bird, C. M. (2005). How I stopped dreading and learned to love transcription. *QUALITATIVE INQUIRY*, 11(2), 226–248.
- Blankenship, K. L., Wegener, D. T., & Murray, R. A. (2015). Values, inter-attitudinal structure, and attitude change: Value accessibility can increase a related attitude's resistance to change. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(12), 1739–1750. doi:10.1177/0146167215609063
- BlessingWhite. (2008). *Coaching Conundrum Report 2009. Building a coaching culture that drives organizational success - Global executive summary*. Retrieved from http://blessingwhite.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/Coaching_Conundrum_2016.pdf
- Bond, C., & Seneque, M. (2012). Conceptualizing coaching as an approach to management and organizational development. *Journal of Management Development*(1), 57. doi:10.1108/02621711311287026
- Bono, J. E., Purvanova, R. K., Towler, A. J., & Peterson, D. B. (2009). A survey of executive coaching practices. *Personnel Psychology*, 62(2), 361.
- Boyce, L. A., Jackson, R. J., & Neal, L. J. (2010). Building successful leadership coaching relationships: Examining impact of matching criteria in a leadership coaching

program. *Journal of Management Development*, 29(10), 914–931.
doi:10.1108/02621711011084231

Bozer, G., & Jones, R. J. (2018). Understanding the factors that determine workplace coaching effectiveness: a systematic literature review. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 1–20. doi:10.1080/1359432X.2018.1446946

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Briner, R. B. (2012). Does coaching work and does anyone really care. *OP Matters*, 16(17), 4–12.

Bracher, M. (2012). Schema Criticism: Literature, Cognitive Science, and Social Change. *College Literature*, 39(4), 84–117.

Brockbank, A. (2008). Is the coaching fit for purpose? A typology of coaching and learning approaches. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 1(2), 132–144. doi:10.1080/17521880802328046

Brower, R. S., & Abolafia, M. Y. (1995). The Structural Embeddedness of Resistance among Public Managers. *Group & Organization Management*, 20(2), 149–166.
doi:doi:10.1177/1059601195202005

Bruckman, J. C. (2008). Overcoming resistance to change: Causal factors, interventions, and critical values. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 11(2), 211–219.
doi:10.1080/10887150802371708

- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, W. W., & Litwin, G. H. (1992). A causal model of organizational performance and change. *Journal of management*, 18(3), 523–545.
- Burnes, B. (2004). Kurt Lewin and complexity theories: back to the future? *Journal of Change Management*, 4(4), 309–325. doi:10.1080/1469701042000303811
- Burnes, B., & Cooke, B. (2013). Kurt Lewin's Field Theory: A Review and Re-evaluation. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15(4), 408–425. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2012.00348.x
- By, R. T. (2005). Organisational change management: A critical review. *Journal of Change Management*, 5(4), 369–380. doi:10.1080/14697010500359250
- Castillo, C., Fernandez, V., & Sallan, J. M. (2018). The six emotional stages of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 31(3), 468–493. doi:10.1108/JOCM-05-2016-0084
- Chan, J., & Burgess, J. (2015). Coaching the coaches: A development program in a Hong Kong organization. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 23(6), 30–33.
- Chiasson, P. (2005). Abduction as an aspect of retroduction. *Semiotica*, 153, 223–242. doi:10.1515/semi.2005.2005.153-1-4.223
- Choi, M., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2011). Individual Readiness for Organizational Change and Its Implications for Human Resource and Organization Development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 10(1), 46–73.

- Chreim, S. (2006). Managerial frames and institutional discourses of change: Employee appropriation and resistance. *Organisation Studies*, 27(9), 1261–1287.
- Chung, S-H., Su, Y-F., & Su, S-W. (2012). The impact of cognitive flexibility on resistance to organizational change. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 40(5), 735–745.
- Cook, N. (2009). It's Good to Talk: Performing and Recording the Telephone Interview. *Area*(2), 176. doi:10.1111/j.1475-4762.2008.00851.x
- Courpasson, D., & Vallas, S. (2016). *The SAGE Handbook of Resistance*: SAGE.
- Cox, E., & Bachkirova, T. (2007). Coaching with emotion: How coaches deal with difficult emotional situations. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(2), 178–189.
- Cox, E., Bachkirova, T., & Clutterbuck, D. (2014). *The complete handbook of coaching*. (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Cremona, K. (2010). Coaching and emotions: An exploration of how coaches engage and think about emotion. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 3(1), 46–59. doi:10.1080/17521880903580073
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Côté, J., & Gilbert, W. (2009). An Integrative Definition of Coaching Effectiveness and Expertise. *International Journal of Sports Science Coaching*, 4(3), 307–323.
- Danermark, B. (2002). *Explaining society: critical realism in the social sciences*: London: Routledge. ISBN 041522182X, 9780415221825

- DBVC. (2017). *Willkommen beim DBVC*. Retrieved from <http://www.dbvc.de/home.html>
- de Haan, E. (2008a). I doubt therefore I coach: Critical moments in coaching practice. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 60(1), 91–105. doi:10.1037/1065-9293.60.1.91
- de Haan, E. (2008b). I struggle and emerge: Critical moments of experienced coaches. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 60(1), 106–131. doi:10.1037/1065-9293.60.1.106
- de Haan, E. (2017). Large-scale survey of trust and safety in coaching supervision: Some evidence that we are doing it right. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 12(1), 37–48.
- de Haan, E. (2019). A systematic review of qualitative studies in workplace and executive coaching: The emergence of a body of research. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 71(4), 227–248. doi:10.1037/cpb0000144
- de Haan, E., & Nieß, C. (2015). Differences between critical moments for clients, coaches, and sponsors of coaching. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 10(1), 38–61.
- de Haan, E., Bertie, C., Day, A., & Sills, C. (2010). Critical moments of clients and coaches: A direct-comparison study. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 5(2), 109–128.
- Deline, M. B. (2019). Framing Resistance: Identifying Frames That Guide Resistance Interpretations at Work. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 33(1), 39–67.
- Doolin, B., Grant, D., & Thomas, R. (2013). Translating Translation and Change: Discourse-Based Approaches. *Journal of Change Management*, 13(3), 251–265. doi:10.1080/14697017.2013.822670

- Drabble, L., Trocki, K. F., Korcha, R. A., Salcedo, B., & Walker, P. (2016). Conducting qualitative interviews by telephone: Lessons learned from a study of alcohol use among sexual minority and heterosexual women. *Qualitative Social Work, 15*(1), 118–133. doi:10.1177/1473325015585613
- Du Toit, A. (2011). Rethinking Coaching – Critical Theory and the Economic Crisis. *Human Resource Management International Digest, 19*(7), 164–170. doi:10.1108/hrmid.2011.04419gaa.017
- Du Toit, A. (2014). *Making Sense of Coaching*. SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Duffell, P-S. C. (2015). The challenges of working with emotion in coaching. *Coaching Psychologist, 11*(1), 32–41.
- Duffy, M., & Passmore, J. (2010). Ethics in coaching: An ethical decision making framework for coaching psychologists. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 5*(2), 140–151.
- Easton, G. (2010). Critical realism in case study research. *Industrial Marketing Management, 39*, 118–128. doi:10.1016/j.indmarman.2008.06.004
- Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(4), 1155–1179. doi:10.5465/AMR.2007.26586086
- Egidi, M. (2014). The economics of wishful thinking and the adventures of rationality. *Mind & Society, 13*(1), 9-27. doi:10.1007/s11299-014-0146-8

- Elfenbein, H. A. (2007). 7 Emotion in organizations: a review and theoretical integration. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 1(1), 315–386.
- EMCC. (2015). *EMCC Competence Framework*. Retrieved from https://emccuk.org/Public/Resources/Competence_Framework/Public/1Resources/Competence_Framework.aspx?hkey=ad98bd86-8bb8-4435-913d-5258f6774375
- Enescu, C., & Popescu, D. M. (2012). Executive Coaching - Instrument for Implementing Organizational Change. *Review of International Comparative Management / Revista de Management Comparat International*, 13(3), 378–386.
- Evered, R. D., & Selman, J. C. (1989). Coaching and the Art of Management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(2), 16.
- Farris, D. D. (1978). Coaching for Improved Work Performance (Book). *Personnel Psychology*, 31(4), 944–947.
- Festinger, L. (1962). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*: London: Tavistock Publications.
- Finkelstein, S. (2016). Secrets of the Superbosses. *Harvard Business Review*, 94(1), 104–107.
- Firoozmand, N. (2014). Managing resistance to change. *Training Journal*, 27–31.
- Fiske, A. P. (2000). Complementarity Theory: Why Human Social Capacities Evolved to Require Cultural Complements. *Personality & Social Psychology Review (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates)*, 4(1), 76–94.
- Fletcher, A. J. (2017). Applying critical realism in qualitative research: methodology meets method. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 20(2), 181–194. doi:10.1080/13645579.2016.1144401

- Ford, J. D., & Ford, L. W. (2009). Decoding Resistance to Change. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(4), 99–103.
- Ford, J. D., Ford, L. W., & D'Amelio, A. (2008). Resistance to change: The rest of the story. *Academy of Management Review*, 33(2), 362–377. doi:10.5465/AMR.2008.31193235
- Frahm, J., & Brown, K. (2007). First steps: linking change communication to change receptivity. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 20(3), 370–387.
- Francis, J. J., Johnston, M., Robertson, C., Glidewell, L., Entwistle, V., Eccles, M. P., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2010). What is an adequate sample size? Operationalising data saturation for theory-based interview studies. *Psychology & Health*, 25(10), 1229–1245.
- Friedman, A. L. (2012). *Continuing Professional Development: Lifelong Learning of Millions*. Routledge.
- Frijda, N. H. (2016). The evolutionary emergence of what we call “emotions.” *Cognition & Emotion*, 30(4), 609–620. Doi:10.1080/02699931.2016.1145106
- Frisch, M. H. (2001). The emerging role of the internal coach. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4), 240–250. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.53.4.240
- Frith, H., & Gleeson, K. (2004). Clothing and Embodiment: Men Managing Body Image and Appearance. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 5(1), 40–48. doi:10.1037/1524-9220.5.1.40

- García-Cabrera, A. M., & García-Barba Hernández, F. (2014). Differentiating the Three Components of Resistance to Change: The Moderating Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem on the Employee Involvement-Resistance Relation. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 25(4), 441–469. doi:10.1002/hrdq.21193
- Gavita, O., David, O. A., & Matu, S. A. (2013). How to Tell if Managers are Good Coaches and How to Help them Improve During Adversity? The Managerial Coaching Assessment System and the Rational Managerial Coaching Program. *Journal of Cognitive and Behavioural Psychotherapies*, 13(2A), 477–502.
- George, J. M., & Jones, G. R. (2001). Towards a Process Model of Individual Change in Organizations. *Human Relations*, 54(4), 419–444. doi:10.1177/0018726701544002
- Gessnitzer, S., & Kauffeld, S. (2015). The Working Alliance in Coaching: Why Behavior Is the Key to Success. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 51(2), 177.
- Gill, J., Johnson, P., & Clark, M. (2010). *Research methods for managers* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE
- Goksoy, A. (2017). The Role of Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on Employee Resistance to Change. *European Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 7(2), 85–93.
- Gottman, J. M., Katz, L. F., & Hooven, C. (1997). *Meta-emotion: how families communicate emotionally*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Grafsgaard, J.F., Wiggins, J.B., Boyer, K.E., Wiebe, E.N., & Lester, J.C. (2013). Automatically Recognizing Facial Indicators of Frustration: A Learning-centric Analysis. 2013

Humaine Association Conference on Affective Computing and Intelligent Interaction, 159-165.

Grant, A. M. (2003). The impact of life coaching on goal attainment, metacognition and mental health. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 31(3), 253–264.

Grant, A. M. (2016). Reflection, note-taking and coaching: If it ain't written, it ain't coaching! *Coaching Psychologist*, 12(2), 49–58.

Grant, A. M. (2017). Solution-focused cognitive-behavioral coaching for sustainable high performance and circumventing stress, fatigue, and burnout. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 69(2), 98–111. doi:10.1037/cpb0000086

Grant, A. M., & Zackon, R. (2004). Executive, workplace and life coaching: Findings from a large-scale survey of international coach federation members. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 2(2), 1-15.

Grant, A. M., & Cavanagh, M. J. (2007). The goal-focused coaching skills questionnaire: Preliminary findings. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 35(6), 751–760.

Grant, A. M., Passmore, J., Cavanagh, M. J., & Parker, H. M. (2010). 4 The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field. *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 25(1), 125–167.

Graßmann, C., Schölmerich, F., & Schermuly, C. C. (2020). The relationship between working alliance and client outcomes in coaching: A meta-analysis. *Human Relations*, 73(1), 35–58. doi:10.1177/0018726718819725

- Gray, D. E. (2006). Executive Coaching: Towards a Dynamic Affiance of Psychotherapy and Transformative Learning Processes. *Management Learning*, 37(4), 475.
- Gray Wilson, D. (2010). Building bridges for change: how leaders enable collective change in organizations. *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal*, 24(1), 21–23.
- Greif, S. (2007). Advances in research on coaching outcomes. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(3), 222–249.
- Greif, S., & Benning-Rohnke, E. (2015). Konsequente Umsetzung von Zielen durch Coaching. / Rigorous Implementation of Goals Through Coaching. *Coaching - Theorie & Praxis*, 1(1), 25–35.
- Grover, S., & Furnham, A. (2016). Coaching as a Developmental Intervention in Organisations: A Systematic Review of Its Effectiveness and the Mechanisms Underlying It. *PLoS ONE*, 11(7), 1–41. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0159137
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105–117). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How Many Interviews Are Enough?: An Experiment with Data Saturation and Variability. *Field methods*, (1), 59.
- Gus, L., Rose, J., & Gilbert, L. (2015). Emotion Coaching: A universal strategy for supporting and promoting sustainable emotional and behavioural well-being. *Educational & Child Psychology*, 32(1), 31–41.

- Gyllensten, K., Palmer, S., Nilsson, E.-K., Regnér, A. M., & Frodi, A. (2010). Experiences of cognitive coaching: A qualitative study. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 5(2), 98-108.
- Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2011). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Hall, D. T., Otazo, K. L., & Hollenbeck, G. P. (1999). Behind Closed Doors: What Really Happens in Executive Coaching. *Organizational Dynamics*, 27(3), 39.
- Hamlin, R. G., Ellinger, A. D., & Beattie, R. S. (2009). Toward a profession of coaching? A definitional examination of 'coaching,' 'organization development,' and 'human resource development'. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 7(1), 13–38.
- Hamner, W. C. (1978). Organizational Transitions: Managing Complex Change. Retrieved from <https://vdocuments.site/organizational-transitions-managing-complex-changeby-richard-beckhard-reuben.html>
- Harakas, P. (2013). Resistance, motivational interviewing, and executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 65(2), 108–127. doi:10.1037/a0033196
- Harmon, P. (2014). *Business Process Change: A Business Process Management Guide for Managers and Process Professionals*. (3rd ed.). Amsterdam: Elsevier. ISBN 9780128003879
- Harvey, G., Loftus-Hills, A., Rycroft-Malone, J., Titchen, A., Kitson, A., McCormack, B., & Seers, K. (2002). Getting evidence into practice: The role and function of facilitation.

Journal of Advanced Nursing, 37(6), 577–588. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2648.2002.02126.x

Helpap, S., & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, S. (2016). Employees' emotions in change: advancing the sensemaking approach. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 29(6), 903.

Hiatt, J. (2006). *ADKAR: A Model for Change in Business, Government, and our Community*. Colorado: Prosci Learning Center Publications.

Hodge, A. (2016). The value of coaching supervision as a development process: Contribution to continued professional and personal wellbeing for executive coaches. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 14(2), 87–106.

Hoe, S. L. (2017). What makes a competent change manager? The importance of developing the “right” attitudes. *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal*, 31(5), 14–16.

Holt, D. T., & Vardaman, J. M. (2013). Toward a Comprehensive Understanding of Readiness for Change: The Case for an Expanded Conceptualization. *Journal of Change Management*, 13(1), 9–18. doi:10.1080/14697017.2013.768426

Houghton, C., Murphy, K., Casey, D., Meehan, B., Thomas, J., & Brooker, D. (2017). From screening to synthesis: using nvivo to enhance transparency in qualitative evidence synthesis. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 26(5–6), 873–881. doi:10.1111/jocn.13443

Hovland, C. I., & Weiss, W. (1951). The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 15(4), 635–650.

- Hudescu, L., & Ilies, L. (2011). Challenges in choosing an effective change management approach. *Managerial Challenges of the Contemporary Society*(2), 125–129.
- Ianiro, P. M., Schermuly, C. C., & Kauffeld, S. (2013). Why interpersonal dominance and affiliation matter: an interaction analysis of the coach-client relationship. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 6(1), 25–46.
- Ibarra, H., Kilduff, M., & Tsai, W. (2005). Zooming In and Out: Connecting Individuals and Collectivities at the Frontiers of Organizational Network Research. *Organization Science*, 16(4), 359–371.
- ICF. (2016). *2016 ICF Global Coaching Study – ICF Pittsburgh*. Retrieved from <https://icf-pittsburgh.org/2016-icf-global-coaching-study/>
- ICF. (2017a). *International Coach Federation Announces Dates for International Coaching Week 2018*. Retrieved from <https://coachfederation.org/blog/international-coach-federation-announces-dates-international-coaching-week-2018>
- ICF. (2017b). *Training Programm Search Service*. Retrieved from <https://coachfederation.org/credential/landing.cfm?ItemNumber=2106&navItemNumber=579>
- ISCO. (2017). *Change-Coaching*. Retrieved from <http://www.isco-ag.de/coaching-in-berlin/change-coaching.html>
- Jim, J. (2016). The Link between the Process of Change and Coaching in an Organization-A Case Study. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 4(2), 63–78.

- Johnson, E. J., & Tversky, A. (1983). Affect, generalization, and the perception of risk. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45(1), 20–31. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.45.1.20
- Jones, C. (2001). Standards and ethics for counselling in action (2nd ed.). *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 29(2), 265–266.
- Jones, S. L., & Van de Ven, A. H. (2016). The Changing Nature of Change Resistance. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 52(4), 482.
- Jones, R. J., Woods, S. A., & Guillaume, Y. R. F. (2016). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 89(2), 249–277. doi:10.1111/joop.12119
- Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. J. W. (2010). *The Essence of Research Methodology: A Concise Guide for Master and PhD Students in Management Science*. London: Springer.
- Joseph, S. (2016). A review of research into business coaching supervision. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 9(2), 158–168. doi:10.1080/17521882.2016.1210187
- Jost, J. T. (2015). Resistance to change: A social psychological perspective. *Social Research*, 82(3), 607–636.
- Judge, T. A., Weiss, H. M., Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Hulin, C. L. (2017). Job attitudes, job satisfaction, and job affect: A century of continuity and of change. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), 356–374. doi:10.1037/apl0000181

- Kaiser, S., Kozica, A., Swart, J., & Werr, A. (2015). Human Resource Management in Professional Service Firms: Learning from a framework for research and practice. *Zeitschrift für Personalforschung/German Journal of Research in Human Resource Management*, 29(2), 77–101. doi: 10.1177/239700221502900203
- Kampa-Kokesch, S., & Anderson, M. Z. (2001). Executive coaching: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4), 205–228. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.53.4.205
- Kegan, R., & Lahey, L. L. (2001). *The real reason people won't change*. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(10), 84–92.
- Kerber, K., & Buono, A. F. (2005). Rethinking organizational change: Reframing the Challenge of Change Management. *Organization Development Journal*, 23(3), 23–38.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Klarner, P., By, R. T., & Diefenbach, T. (2011). Employee emotions during organizational change-Towards a new research agenda, 332.
- Klonek, F. E., Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., & Kauffeld, S. (2014). Dynamics of Resistance to Change: A Sequential Analysis of Change Agents in Action. *Journal of Change Management*, 14(3), 334–360. doi:10.1080/14697017.2014.896392
- Kothari, C. R. (2004), *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*, (2nd ed.). New Age International Publishers.

- Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1979). Choosing strategies for change. *Harvard Business Review*, 57(2), 106–114.
- Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (2008). Choosing Strategies for Change. *Harvard Business Review*, 86(7/8), 130–139.
- Kołodziejczak, M. (2015). Coaching Across Organizational Culture. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, 329–334. doi:10.1016/S2212-5671(15)00491-8
- Kozak, M. A. & Genç, V. (2014). The Importance of Emotion Management Emerging for the Prevention of Resistance in the Change Process: A Perspective for Service Businesses. *Optimum Ekonomi ve Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 1(2), 81–92.
- Kruglanski, A. W., Belanger, J. J., Chen, X., Kopetz, C., Pierro, A., & Mannetti, L. (2012). The Energetics of Motivated Cognition: A Force-Field Analysis. *Psychological Review*, 119(1), 1–20.
- Kruglanski, A. W., Webster, D. M., & Klein, A. (1993). Motivated Resistance and Openness to Persuasion in the Presence or Absence of Prior Information. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 65(5), 861–876.
- Kulkarni, V. (2016). Employee Interpretations of Change: Exploring the Other Side of the Resistance Story. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 52(2), 246–263.
- Lai, Y-L., & McDowall, A. (2014). A systematic review (SR) of coaching psychology: Focusing on the attributes of effective coaching psychologists. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 9(2), 118–134.

- Laske, O. (2004). Can evidence based coaching increase ROI? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 2(2), 41–53.
- Lawrence, P. R. (1969). How to deal with resistance to change. *Harvard Business Review*, 47(1), 4–176.
- Lawrence, P., & Whyte, A. (2014). What is coaching supervision and is it important? *Coaching*, 7(1), 39–55. doi:10.1080/17521882.2013.878370
- Lawrence, E., Ruppel, C. P., & Tworoger, L. C. (2014). The emotions and cognitions during organizational change: The importance of the emotional work for leaders. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict*, 18(1), 257–273.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991a). *Emotion and adaptation*. New York : Oxford University Press.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991b). Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American Psychologist*, 46(8), 819–834. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.46.8.819
- Lazarus, R. S. (2006). Emotions and Interpersonal Relationships: Toward a Person-Centered Conceptualization of Emotions and Coping. *Journal of Personality*, 74(1), 9–46. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2005.00368.x
- LeCompte, M. D., & Goetz, J. P. (1982). Problems of reliability and validity in ethnographic research. *Review of Educational Research*, 52(1), 31–60.
- Lewin, K., & Cartwright, D. (1951). *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers*. New York: Harper.
- Linder-Pelz, S. (2014). Steps towards the Benchmarking of Coaches' Skills. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 12(1), 47–62.

- Linder-Pelz, S., & Hall, L. M. (2007). The theoretical roots of NLP-based coaching. *The Coaching Psychologist*, 3(1), 12–17.
- Linder-Pelz, S., & Lawley, J. (2015). Using Clean Language to explore the subjectivity of coachees' experience and outcomes. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 10(2), 161–174.
- Lines, B. C., Sullivan, K. T., Smithwick, J. B., & Mischung, J. (2015). Overcoming resistance to change in engineering and construction: Change management factors for owner organizations. *International Journal of Project Management*, 33, 1170–1179. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.01.008
- Lippmann, E. (2015). Was macht einen Coach zum Coach? Weiterbildung und Qualifizierung/ What makes a difference? Further education and qualification for a professional coach. *Coaching - Theorie & Praxis*, 1(1), 51–60.
- Liston-Smith, J. (2008). Appreciative inquiry and solution-focused coaching: Applications of positive psychology in the practice of coaching. *The Coaching Psychologist*, 4(2), 102–105.
- Luke, D., & Bates, S. (2015). Using Critical Realism to Explain Indeterminacy in Role Behaviour Systematically. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 45(3), 331–351.
- Mabsout, R. (2015). Abduction and economics: the contributions of Charles Peirce and Herbert Simon. *Journal of Economic Methodology*, 22(4), 491–516. doi:10.1080/1350178X.2015.1024876
- Marsh, Linda. (1992). Good manager: good coach? What is needed for effective coaching?. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 24. doi:10.1108/00197859210020213.

- Mavor, P., Sadler-Smith, E., & Gray, D. E. (2010). Teaching and learning intuition: some implications for HRD and coaching practice. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 34(8/9), 822–838. doi:10.1108/03090591011080995
- McCarthy, G. (2010). Approaches to the Postgraduate Education of Business Coaches. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 50(2), 323–357.
- McDermott, M., Levenson, A., & Newton, S. (2007). What Coaching Can and Cannot Do for Your Organization. *Human Resource Planning*, 30(2), 30–37.
- McDougall, W. (2001). *An Introduction to Social Psychology* (14th ed.). Kitchener, Ont: Batoche.
- McGuiness, S., & Cronin, C. (2015). Examining the relationship between employee indicators of resistance to changes in job conditions and wider organisational change: Evidence from Ireland. *Evidence-based HRM: a Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 4(1), 30–48. doi:doi:10.1108/EBHRM-04-2015-0013
- McKay, K., Nuntz, J. R. C., Näswall, K. (2013). The Effect of Affective Commitment, Communication and Participation on Resistance to Change: The Role of Change Readiness. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, 42(2), 29–40.
- McKenna, E. F. (2006). *Business psychology and organisational behaviour: a student's handbook* (4th ed.). Hove : Psychology Press.
- Meaney, M., & Pung, C. (2008). McKinsey global results: Creating organizational transformations. *The McKinsey Quarterly*, 7(3), 1–7.

- Meier, A., Boivin, M., & Meier, M. (2008). Theme-Analysis: Procedures and Application for Psychotherapy Research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 5(4), 289–310. doi:10.1080/14780880802070526
- Merdzanovska, M. (2016). Dealing with change resistance. *Economic Development / Ekonomiski Razvoj*, 18(1/2), 393–406.
- Merriam, S. B. (2014). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation: A Guide to Design and Implementation* (3rd ed.). Somerset, NJ, USA: Wiley.
- Millar, C. C. J. M., Chen, S., & Waller, L. (2017). Leadership, knowledge and people in knowledge-intensive organisations: implications for HRM theory and practice. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(2), 261–275. doi:10.1080/09585192.2016.1244919
- Miller, C., & Subbiah, K. (2012). A Five-Factor Model for Success of Internal Consultants. *SAM Advanced Management Journal* (07497075), 77(1), 4–12.
- Mittwede, S. K. (2012). Research Paradigms and Their Use and Importance in Theological Inquiry and Education. *Journal of Education & Christian Belief*, 16(1), 23–40.
- Mkansi, M., & Acheampong, E. A. (2012). Research Philosophy Debates and Classifications: Students' Dilemma. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 10(2), 132–140.
- Moen, F., & Federici, R. A. (2012). The Effect of External Executive Coaching and Coaching-Based Leadership on Need Satisfaction. *Organization Development Journal*, 30(3), 63–74.

- Nandi, A., & Platt, L. (2017). Are there differences in responses to social identity questions in face-to-face versus telephone interviews? Results of an experiment on a longitudinal survey. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology: Theory & Practice*, 20(2), 151–166. doi:10.1080/13645579.2016.1165495
- Niiniluoto, I. (2017). Abductive Analysis: Theorizing Qualitative Research. *Transactions of the Charles S Peirce Society*, 53(1), 152–154.
- Nygren, T. E., Isen, A. M., Taylor, P. J., & Dulin, J. (1996). The influence of positive affect on the decision rule in risk situations: Focus on outcome (and especially avoidance of loss) rather than probability. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 66(1), 59–72. doi:10.1006/obhd.1996.0038
- O'Connor, J., & Seymour, J. (1993). *Introducing Neuro-Linguistic Programming: Psychological Skills for Understanding and Influencing People*. London, UK: Thorsons.
- O'Donovan, H. (2009). CRAIC -- A model suitable for Irish coaching psychology. *Coaching Psychologist*, 5(2), 90–96.
- Oreg, S. (2003). Resistance to change: Developing an individual differences measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(4), 680–693. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.4.680
- Oreg, S., Vakola, M., & Armenakis, A. (2011). Change Recipients' Reactions to Organizational Change: A 60-Year Review of Quantitative Studies. *Journal of applied behavioral science*, 47(4), 461–524. Doi:10.1177/0021886310396550

- Oreg, S., Bartunek, J. M., Lee, G., & Do, B. (2018). *An Affect-Based Model of Recipients' Responses to Organizational Change Events*. Retrieved from <https://journals.aom.org/doi/10.5465/amr.2014.0335>
- Palmer, B. (2003). *Making change work: practical tools for overcoming human resistance to change*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: ASQ Quality Press.
- Palmer, S., & O'Riordan, S. (2012). *Putting coaching psychology into practice: An evidence based approach. Interviews with speakers from the SGCP Annual Coaching Psychology Conference 2012*. Retrieved from <https://www1.bps.org.uk/system/files/documents/interviews.pdf>
- Pardo del Val, M., & Martínez Fuentes, C. (2003). Resistance to change: a literature review and empirical study. *Management Decision*, 41(2), 148–155.
- Paren, J. (2015). Resistance to Change in Organizations. *Proceedings of the Multidisciplinary Academic Conference*, 1–9.
- Passmore, J. (2009). Coaching ethics: Making ethical decisions - novices and experts. *Coaching Psychologist*, 5(1), 6–10.
- Passmore, J. (2016). *Excellence in Coaching: The Industry Guide* (3rd ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Passmore, J., & McGoldrick, S. (2009). Super-vision, extra-vision or blind faith? A grounded theory study of the efficacy of coaching supervision. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 4(2), 145–161.

- Patalano, R. (2011). Resistance to Change: Historical Excursus and Contemporary Interpretations. *Review of political economy*, 23(2), 249-266.
- Peltier, B. (2001). The ethical responsibility of professional autonomy. *Journal of the California Dental Association*, 29(7), 522–525.
- Persson, E. (2018). Testing the impact of frustration and anger when responsibility is low. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 145, 435–448. doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2017.12.001
- Peterson, D. B. (1996). Executive coaching at work: The art of one-on-one change. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 48(2), 78–86. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.48.2.78
- Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multi multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 783–794. doi:10.5465/AMR.2000.3707722
- Popper, M., & Lipshitz, R. (1992). Coaching on Leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 13(7), 15–18. doi:10.1108/01437739210022865
- Predișcan, M., Braduțanu, D., & Roiban, R. N. (2013). Forces that enhance or reduce employee resistance to change. *Annals of the University of Oradea, Economic Science Series*, 22(1), 1606–1612.
- PR Newswire. (2012). *Results of 2012 ICF Global Coaching Study Now Available*. Retrieved from <https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/results-of-2012-icf-global-coaching-study-now-available-161195715.html>

- Psiloutsikou, M. (2016). The added value of coaching compared to a friendly discussion: Insight from behavioral economics. *International Journal of Business & Economic Sciences Applied Research*, 9(2), 47–58.
- Quy Nguyen, H. U. Y., Corley, K. G., & Kraatz, M. S. (2014). From support to mutiny: Shifting legitimacy judgements and emotional reactions impacting the implementation of radical change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(6), 1650.
- Reissner, S., & Pagan, V. (2013). Generating employee engagement in a public–private partnership: management communication activities and employee experiences. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(14), 2741–2759. doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.765497
- Reitz, M. (2009). Developing intuitive awareness. *Further Techniques for Coaching and Mentoring*, 62.
- Rekalde, I., Landeta, J., & Albizu, E. (2015). Determining factors in the effectiveness of executive coaching as a management development tool. *Management Decision*, 53, 1677–1697.
- Richardson, P., & Denton, D. K. (1996). Communicating Change. *Human Resource Management*, 35(2), 203–216.
- Robbins, S., & Judge, T. (2013). *Organizational Behavior Global Edition*. Pearson Education.
- Robinson, O. C. (2014). Sampling in Interview-Based Qualitative Research: A Theoretical and Practical Guide. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 11(1), 25–41. doi:10.1080/14780887.2013.801543

- Rock, D., & Donde, R. (2008a). Driving organizational change with internal coaching programs: part one. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(1), 10–18. doi:doi:10.1108/00197850810841594
- Rock, D., & Donde, R. (2008b). Driving organisational change with internal coaching programmes: part two. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(2), 75–80. doi:10.1108/00197850810858901
- Rosenbaum, D., More, E., & Steane, P. (2018). Planned organisational change management: Forward to the past? An exploratory literature review. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 31(2), 286–303
- Rousseau, D. M. (2001). Schema, promise and mutuality: The building blocks of the psychological contract. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 511. doi.org/10.1348/096317901167505
- Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2000). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 769–802). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research methods for business students* (7th ed.). Harlow, Essex : Pearson Education Limited.
- Saunders, M.N. & Townsend, K. (2016). Reporting and justifying the number of interview participants in organization and workplace research. *British Journal of Management*, 27(4), 836-852.

- Schalk, M., & Landeta, J. (2017). Internal versus external executive coaching. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 10(2), 140–156. doi:10.1080/17521882.2017.1310120
- Schein, E. H. (2006). Coaching and Consultation Revisited: Are they the same? In M., Goldsmith & L., Lyons (Eds.), *Coaching for Leadership*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer & Co.
- Schein, E. H. (2009). *Helping: how to offer, give, and receive help*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Pub.
- Schutte, F., & Steyn, R. (2015). The scientific building blocks for business coaching: A literature review. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1), 1–11. doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.657
- Scott, B. A., & Barnes, C. M. (2011). A Multilevel Field Investigation of Emotional Labor, Affect, Work Withdrawal, and Gender. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(1), 116.
- Seijts, G. H., & Gandz, J. (2018). Transformational change and leader character. *Business Horizons*, 61, 239–249. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2017.11.005
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2007). Coaching and positive psychology. *Australian Psychologist*, 42(4), 266–267. doi:10.1080/00050060701648233
- Shah, N., Irani, Z., & Sharif, A. M. (2017). Big data in an HR context: Exploring organizational change readiness, employee attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Business Research*, 70, 366–378. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.08.010

- Shaw, D. (2017). Managing people and learning in organisational change projects. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 30(6), 923.
- Sheldon, C. (2018). Trust your gut, listen to reason: How experienced coaches work with intuition in their practice. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 13(1), 6–20.
- Sherman, S., & Freas, A. (2004). The wild west of Executive Coaching. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(11), 82–90.
- Shoukry, H., & Cox, E. (2018). Coaching as a social process. *Management Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507618762600>
- Sims, C. (2017). Second wave positive psychology coaching with difficult emotions: Introducing the mnemonic of 'TEARS HOPE'. *Coaching Psychologist*, 13(2), 66–78.
- Sirkin, H. L., Keenan, P., & Jackson, A. (2005). The hard side of change management. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(10), 108.
- Smith, S. (2015). Internal coaching: critical reflections on the success and failure in workplace coaching. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10545/576157>
- Soebbing, B. P., Wicker, P., & Weimar, D. (2015). The Impact of Leadership Changes on Expectations of Organizational Performance. *Journal of Sport Management*, 29(5), 485–497. doi:10.1123/jsm.2014-0089
- Sonenshein, S., & Dholakia, U. (2012). Explaining Employee Engagement with Strategic Change Implementation: A Meaning-Making Approach. *Organization Science*, 23(1), 1–23.

- Sonesh, S. C., Coultas, C. W., Marlow, S. L., Lacerenza, C. N., Reyes, D., & Salas, E. (2015). Coaching in the wild: Identifying factors that lead to success. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 67(3), 189–217. doi:10.1037/cpb0000042
- St. Pierre, P., & Smith, M. (2014). Intuition in Coaching: It's Not Magic. *Strategies: A Journal for Physical and Sport Educators*, 27(2), 37–42.
- Stewart, R. C., Carl, R., Martin, K., & Rosie, S. (2005). Business coaching: challenges for an emerging industry. *Industrial and Commercial Training*(5), 218. doi:10.1108/00197850510609630
- Stober, D. R., Wildflower, L., & Drake, D. (2006). Evidence-based practice: A potential approach for effective coaching. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 4(1), 1–8.
- Stragalas, N. (2010). Improving Change Implementation. *OD Practitioner*, 42(1), 31–38.
- Suddaby, R. (2006, 08//). From the editors: What grounded theory is not, Editorial. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(4), 633–642. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=22083020&site=eds-live>
- Sun, C-Y. (2017). Translating desire (and frustration). *Ethics and Education*, 12(1), 62–72. doi:10.1080/17449642.2016.1272734
- Taylor, S. E., & Brown, J. D. (1988). Illusion and Well-Being: A Social Psychological Perspective on Mental Health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(2), 193–210. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.103.2.193

- ten Have, S., ten Have, W., Huijsmans, A-B., & Otto, M. (2016). *Reconsidering change management: Applying evidence-based insights in change management practice*. Routledge.
- The British Psychological Society. (2008) *Generic Professional Practice Guidelines* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from https://medhealth.leeds.ac.uk/download/3877/bps_professional_practice_guidelines
- Theeboom, T., Beersma, B., & van Vianen, A. E. M. (2014). Does coaching work? A meta-analysis on the effects of coaching on individual level outcomes in an organizational context. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 9(1), 1–18.
- Tkach, J. T., & DiGirolamo, J. A. (2017). The state and future of coaching supervision. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 12(1), 49–63.
- Tormala, Z. L., & Petty, R. E. (2004). Source Credibility and Attitude Certainty: A Metacognitive Analysis of Resistance to Persuasion. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(4), 427-442.
- Turner, E., & Hawkins, P. (2016). Multi-stakeholder contracting in executive/business coaching: an analysis of practice and recommendations for gaining maximum value. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 14(2), 48–65.
- Veblen, T. (1899). *The Theory of the Leisure Class: an Economic study of Institutions*. Champaign, Ill.: Project Gutenberg.

- Vedenik, G., & Leber, M. (2015). Change management with the aid of a generic model for restructuring business processes. *International Journal of Simulation Modelling (IJSIMM)*, 14(4), 584–595. doi:10.2507/IJSIMM14(4)2.302
- Volkoff, O., & Strong, D. M. (2013). Critical realism and affordances: Theorizing IT-associated organizational change processes. *MIS Quarterly*, 37(3), 819–834.
- Wang, Q. (2013). Structure and characteristics of effective coaching practice. *Coaching Psychologist*, 9(1), 7–17.
- Warrick, D. D. (2017). The Urgent Need to Educate Present and Future Leaders in Organization Development and Change. *OD Practitioner*, 49(3), 52–58.
- Wilkins, B. M. (2000). *A grounded theory study of personal coaching*. (61), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psych&AN=2000-95021-108&site=eds-live>
- Witherspoon, R., & White, R. (2000). Starting smart: Clarifying coaching goals and roles. *Coaching for Leadership, San Francisco, Josey-Bass/Pfeffer*, 165, 185.
- Wong, M. (2016). The mood-emotion loop. *Philosophical Studies*, 173(11), 3061–3080. doi:10.1007/s11098-016-0650-2
- Ybema, S., Thomas, R., & Hardy, C. (2016). Organizational change and resistance: An identity perspective. *The SAGE handbook of resistance*, 386–404.
- Zhang, X., Kuchinke, L., Woud, M. L., Velten, J., & Margraf, J. (2017). Full length article: Survey method matters: Online/offline questionnaires and face-to-face or

telephone interviews differ. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 71, 172–180.
doi:10.1016/j.chb.2017.02.006

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical Approval Reference provided by the Ethical Committee

27 July 2017

Bianca Brandes

DBA Student, OS/HRM

Portsmouth Business School

Dear Bianca

Study Title:

The contribution of external business coaching in order to handle individual change resistance at the workplace

Ethics Committee reference:

E463

Thank you for submitting your documents for ethical review. The Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable ethical opinion of the above research on the basis described in the application form, protocol and supporting documentation, revised in the light of any conditions set, subject to the general conditions set out in the attached document, and with the following stipulation:

The favourable opinion of the EC does not grant permission or approval to undertake the research. Management permission or approval must be obtained from any host organisation, including University of Portsmouth, prior to the start of the study.

Summary of any ethical considerations:

-

Documents reviewed

The documents reviewed by Peter Scott [LCM] + PBS Ethics Committee

<i>Document</i>	<i>Version</i>	<i>Date</i>
Ethics application form	V1	30 Jun 17
Invitation letter	V1	30 Jun 17
Participant Information Sheet	V1	30 Jun 17
Consent form	V1	30 Jun 17
Interview questions	V1	30 Jun 17
Ethics application form	V2	25 Jul 17
Invitation letter	V1	25 Jul 17
Participant information sheet	V1	25 Jul 17
Consent form	V1	25 Jul 17
Interview questions	V1	25 Jul 17

Statement of compliance

The Committee is constituted in accordance with the Governance Arrangements set out by the University of Portsmouth.

After ethical review

Reporting and other requirements

The attached document acts as a reminder that research should be conducted with integrity and gives detailed guidance on reporting requirements for studies with a favourable opinion, including:

- ☐ Notifying substantial amendments
- ☐ Notification of serious breaches of the protocol
- ☐ Progress reports
- ☐ Notifying the end of the study

Feedback

You are invited to give your view of the service that you have received from the Faculty Ethics Committee. If you wish to make your views known please contact the administrator, Christopher Martin.


Please quote this number on all correspondence: E463

Yours sincerely and wishing you every success in your research



Chair

Appendix B: Form UPR16

Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information		Student ID:	796843
PGRS Name:	Bianca Brandes		
Department:	Business School	First Supervisor:	Dr. Yi-Ling Lai
Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students)	01.10.2015		
Study Mode and Route:	Part-time <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input type="checkbox"/>	MPhil <input type="checkbox"/> PhD <input type="checkbox"/>	MD <input type="checkbox"/> Professional Doctorate <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Title of Thesis:	Addressing resistance to change: An explorative study of the potential of external coaching		
Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data)	45,284		
<p>If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study</p> <p>Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).</p>			
UKRIO Finished Research Checklist: (If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/)			
a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>		
b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>		
c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>		
d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>		
e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>		
Candidate Statement:			
I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)			
Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):		E463	
If you have <i>not</i> submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so:			
NA			
Signed (PGRS):			
		Date: 30 April 2020	

Appendix C: Applied interview guide

The interview guide is provided below:

Questions to the interviewee about the person and their background:

1. What are the main foci of your current professional activity?
2. How many years of professional experience do you have as a coach and as a coach instructor?
3. What did you do professionally before the coaching?

Questions to the interviewee about the concept and understanding of change resistance at the workplace:

4. How do you recognise peoples' change resistance?
5. What do you personally understand by change resistance?
6. Is the topic currently relevant in the corporate landscape?
 - a. How was that at the beginning of your career as a coach?
 - b. What will be the relevance of the topic developed in the future?

Questions to the interviewee in the role of a coach:

7. In what context have you been confronted with change resistance at the coachee side (type of project, period, persons involved/positions in the change initiative, original project assignment, client, behaviour as coach)?
8. How did the project go?
 - a. How did you perceive your coach-coachee relationship in these cases?
 - b. How did the coachee respond (punctually and over time)?
9. Could you overcome the resistance on the coachee? If so, how did you recognise that?

10. How did you present the result to the client and how did the client react?

Questions to the interviewee in the role of a coach educator:

11. What did you learn about change resistance in your education?

- a. What qualification offers for coach educators are there on change resistance and when did you last use them?
- b. Do you see a need for an explicit education offer for coaches and coach instructors on the subject of change resistance?

12. To what extent do you address the issue of change resistance in coach education? Has that changed in your career as a coach instructor?

- a. Do you teach external coaches other aspects of change resistance than internal coaches?
- b. What typical questions do you receive by your course participants coachees have about change resistance and what are your answers?

Summary and outlook

13. Is change resistance positive or negative for you and why?

14. How is the success/efficiency of external coaching compared to internal coaching, e.g. by executives assessed in change resistance?

15. In your opinion, are there additional aspects?

16. Are you interested in a summary of my research results after completing my dissertation?

Appendix D: Request for interview

The potential participants were contacted via e-mail with the following request for an interview:

Dear Ms./Mr. ...

I am currently writing my doctoral thesis together with ESB Reutlingen and the University of Portsmouth under the working title “External coaching and its contribution to the individual employee change resistance”. My research targets the field of coach education and the contribution of external coaches within the area of individual change resistance at the workplace.

Therefore, I conducted semi-structured interviews with working professionals, which have at least two years of professional experience in the role of a coach as well as a coach educator.

With reference to *(source of contact)*, I am writing to kindly ask, if you be willing to participate in an interview planned for approximately one hour to share your expertise within this field. The gathered data will be made anonymized.

If you are interested, I would appreciate sharing my findings with you at the end of my research.

I am looking forward to hearing from you by mail or phone.

Thank you in advance and kind regards,

Bianca Brandes (Mail: bianca.brandes@myport.ac.uk, Phone: 0049 151 5800 5878)

Appendix E: Participant's demographic background

Working experiences in the area of coaching/ coaching education in years	5 and less	6–10	11–19	Above 20
No. of interview participants	1	4	7	9
No. of coaching educators	1	1	1	7
Scholarly background	A level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Marketing ▪ Business administration ▪ Educational studies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Trader education ▪ Finance ▪ Medical doctor ▪ Communication technology ▪ Engineer ▪ Medical pedagogy ▪ Business administration ▪ Sport studies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social pedagogy ▪ Psycho-sociology ▪ Clinical psychology ▪ Economics ▪ Communication science ▪ Psychological science ▪ Technical education
Professional experience aside from coaching and coaching education	Starting to work in the coaching area directly after school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ German teacher ▪ Sales service ▪ IT ▪ Management consultant ▪ Marketing manager 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Work council ▪ Entrepreneur ▪ Manager ▪ Physiotherapist ▪ University teacher ▪ Controlling ▪ Finance ▪ HR ▪ Banker ▪ Sales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Psychosocial focus ▪ University teacher ▪ Adult education ▪ Research and development ▪ Psychotherapist ▪ Organisational development ▪ Sales ▪ Prison regime ▪ HR ▪ Board Member ▪ Journalist ▪ HR development
Main sector of coaching clients	Intersectoral, Listed companies, SME	Intersectoral, Listed companies, SME	Intersectoral, Municipality, Listed companies, Hospitals, SME	Intersectoral, Listed companies, SME

Appendix F: Data analysis—sub-codes and further refinements

Categorisation of the codes	Themes, sub-themes and further refinements
Information about participants	Profession before being a coach, years of experience as a coach, years of experience as a coach educator
Understanding of resistance	<p>Kind of resistance: Resistance against coaching, resistance against the topic of the coaching, unconscious resistance</p> <p>Evaluation of resistance: negative, neutral (ambivalent, information, meaningful), normal (energy, immanent, need for action), positive (energy, invitation)</p> <p>Concept/term: subjective form of expression, decision, emotion, to counter something, is not existing, missing acceptance, moral, motivation lack, not thought yet, open for change, protection and defence, system, difference</p>
Recognition of resistance	<p>Feel: gut feeling, tact, decreasing rapport</p> <p>Hear: via questions</p> <p>See: change observation, calibration, question marks on the coachees face</p> <p>Notice: empathy, intuition</p>
Indicators of resistance	<p>Behaviour: aloofness, being dishonest, being lost in thought, being sick, coming too late, dates are not respected or postponed, do not get involved, evasive distracting answers, generalising via, somebody could... sentences, lack of acceptance, laughing, making a joke of it, participate pro forma, persist in beliefs, process comes to a halt, sentences starting with "Yes but...", silence, speaking part gets bigger, swearing, tasks not performed as agreed, typical statements, unwillingness</p> <p>Body: bearing, breathing, facial expression, gesture, tiredness, view, voice, and tone</p> <p>Emotions: anger, astonishment, become touchy, concern, conflict, fear, frustration, pleasure, resignation, shame, sorrow and tears, stress, unreasonable emotion</p>

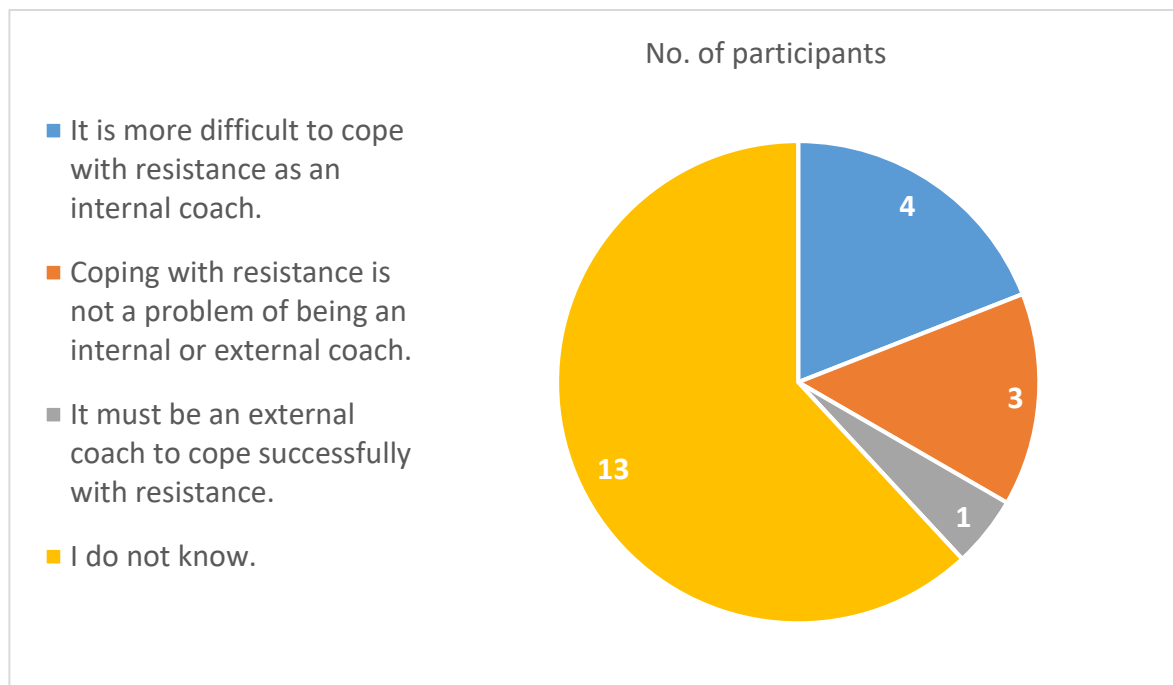
Situations, where resistance occurs	<p>Personal development: attendance through the coach, professional reorientation, bonus, career development, has already a coach, self-management, stress, excessive demands, work-life balance, time</p> <p>Leadership: general management issues, culture, improving behaviour, top management something that coachee does not like, missing appraisal</p> <p>General statements: occurs in every topic, customer, critical personality, human problems, willingness for coaching</p> <p>Conflicts: manager has problems with own team, conflicts within the team, conflict with another team</p> <p>Reorganisation: investors in a start-up, new tasks for the coachee, organisational development, outplacement, job reduction, structural changes, acquisition and merger, changes in the process for the coachee</p> <p>Implementation ideas: communication, poor performance appraisal</p>
Causes of resistance	<p>lack of information, participation to the coaching is unintended, contrary to own values and beliefs, fears and concerns, contrary to own objectives and needs, external obstacles something new, less self-assurance, something is unconscious, lack of skills and abilities, coach and coach behaviour, openness to change, something is not indifferent, inner ambivalence, topics shouldn't be discussed, lack of decision-making, changes were not linked to something positive, persist in own intentions, people do not like to unlearn</p>
Rejection of the coach and its reason	<p>Rejection: Not yet occurred, psyche, antipathy, missing sympathy not yet occurred, agreement of both sides if yes or no, trust/competence/sympathy as objective, choice</p> <p>Selection criteria: experience of the coach, skills and abilities</p> <p>Reasons: on both sides, for rejecting the coachee, for rejecting the coach</p>
What a coach does, if the coachee is sent by a third person and does not want to be coached	<p>Breaking off, assignment clarification, love to coach that, coaching is not possible, communication to employer, morally unacceptable, approach, how does the coachee show that</p>

What a coach does, if the coachee is resistant to the topic	<p>Achieve a good state of the coachee: remove stress, appraise the coachee, appraise the past experiences of the coachee, making jokes</p> <p>Set up of the coaching: comfortable room/space, align physical behaviour</p> <p>Behaviour of the coach: be creative, involve others, be a complaint box, be open, for every coaching result, maintain the change in a direction, structural listening, stand tears, take time, time of confrontation</p> <p>Questions: exploring questions, hypothetical questions, circular questions</p> <p>Tools and techniques: tell similar stories, offer observation, excuse by the coach, future visions, imagination of the new situation, testing, develop new courses of actions, identify meta-objectives, inner set up, involvement, metaphors, provocation, increase skills, show different scenarios, understanding for the other side, to do list for next meeting, dilemma of the coach</p> <p>Change perspective: Reframing, working with roles, structural setup</p> <p>Working with resources: set anchors, identify competencies and abilities, consider values</p> <p>Handling of resistance, decrease pressure and do not censure, soften the resistance, take it seriously</p>
Success factors of coaching with an emphasis on the coach and the coach-coachee relationship	<p>Attitude of the coach: coachee has reasons for resistance, take coach as he is</p> <p>Characteristics of a good coach: accept and understand, be open, distanced engagement, patience and time, coachee knows it already, be interested, competence, confirmability, be neutral, do not take it personally, be independent, take it seriously, be objective oriented, do not be solution oriented, self-responsible, voluntary, credible, open</p> <p>Coach-coachee relationship: be on the same level, mutual respect, intimacy, personal basis, professional relationship, professional discretion, transparency, trust</p>
What coaches do to improve their work	Self-reflection, own inner set up, open to new experiences, rest in themselves, meta-vision, financial independence, regularly work on the own attitude, self-observation, supervision
How coaches see themselves	Be the arsonist in the head of the coachee, development worker, increase self-efficacy, coachee is the centre, searching for the key, support, companion, do not know anything but want to understand

What coaches learned about resistance and where they learned it?	<p>Kind of training: Kind of finalised training, coaching training, experience as a knowledge source, no training to resistance, resistance as indirect part of different training, knowledge source is not known</p> <p>Learnings: Working as learned, the other one is the important one, testing, self-reflection, asking for the reason, attitude, body as feedback instrument, soft leadership, stay control, system set up, trust, resistance as a construct, methods (questions, case studies)</p>
Participants of their own training offerings	Human resource, internal and external coaches, managers, other jobs with consulting aspects
How the coach educators teach resistance	Coaching approach, case studies, appraisal for myself, appraisal for the coachee, no separate module, no methods, mix of methods, only real topics for case studies, valuation of resistance, models (four phases of change, drama triangle, valley of tears), handling (identify, understand, change)
Are external or internal coaches better suited for coaching of resistant employees?	Indifferent, difficult for internal coaches, easier for external coaches, not an intern, should be process-external
Is there a need to have a dedicated training offering for resistance?	Recent market (not enough, do not know), training for managers, needed for young coaches, no, supervision

Appendix G: Suitability of internal and external coaches for resistant coachees

Figure 33: Utilising external or internal coaches to deal with resistance successfully



The argument of eight interviewees ($n=8$) was, by trend, endorsing external coaches in the context of resistance. One argument was that the coachees might be more cautious, and may not be that honest and open with internal coaches.

Well, it makes a huge difference whether you are in the company or outside. Well, because you're probably much less neutral in the company. You are somehow built in. People are of course more cautious towards internal coaches, depending on what the topic is Interviewee 8).

Furthermore, one interviewee ($n=1$) stated that internal coaches must have a high level of self-reflection.

“Because [the internal coaches] are part of the organisation, they may share certain blind spots [of the organisation] with their coaching partners” (Interviewee 9).

It was outlined that sharing internal organisational knowledge present a risk that the coach is not neutral. The reason for showing bias and not being neutral is also a central argument for preferring an external coach.

“It could be that it is easier for an outsider to get into that flow because there are no fantasies and no self-interests in the room” (Interviewee 13).

In addition, some interviewees (n=3) are indifferent as to whether an internal coach fits better than an external coach. They said that it *“depends on the depth of the topics. Basically, it is not up to an internal or external coach if resistance can be seen and questioned from the coachee” (Interviewee 1).*

Instead, it is essential that the coach is *“process extern” (Interviewee 2)*, which meant the coach is not involved in the process and the topic around the resistance. There was only one reason mentioned by one interviewee (n=1) why internal coaches might be more suitable.

“Some coachees also say: I already know this person. I have much trust to that person” (Interviewee 3).

Appendix H: Analysis of the training and development market

This appendix provides an overview of the current status in coaching training with an emphasis on change resistance. The current training and development market in European countries is analysed, mainly focusing on Germany due to the researcher's professional background. It includes the discussion of supervision as one opportunity for coach development as well as essential competencies for the external coaching practitioners to enable them to facilitate an effective changing process.

Coaching training and development is varied due to the nature of the coaching purpose. It is usually combined with adult education, psychology or business schools (Stober et al., 2006). Over the years it has become apparent that the coaching industry and its practices are unregulated, specifically regarding coaching education (Briner, 2012; McCarthy, 2010; Seligman, 2007; Sherman & Freas, 2004; Stewart, Carl, Martin, & Rosie, 2005). Even though there are some accreditations available along with industry organisations operating in the field of coaching, anybody can call themselves a coach and there are no standard educational requirements or specific training prerequisites (Briner, 2012; McCarthy, 2010; Seligman, 2007; Sherman & Freas, 2004; Stewart et al., 2005). In turn, anyone can design and mark training initiatives as appropriate for coaches.

However, there is a notable increase in coaching certification and accreditation being offered on the coaching industry market (Bachkirova, Arthur, & Reading, 2015; Grant & Zackon, 2004). This trend is mainly driven by the demand of both those who plan to work as a coach and by the potential coachees (ICF, 2016; Newswire, 2012). In fact, this demand follows the observation in which an appropriate coach is selected by the client based on a title, for example, like a certification or accreditation (Grant et al., 2010).

To provide a focused overview of qualified training, only training and development activities certified by associations are analysed in this section. This analysis approach is underpinned by the Global Coaching Study 2016 (ICF, 2016) which stated that the majority of coaches who participate in training, look for courses which are accredited or certified. In relation to professional associations, coaches are involved in two different types of associations. First, those that only have coaches as members, for example Deutscher Bundesverband Coaching e.V (DBVC) and the ICF. Second, those which, in addition to coaches, include supervisors and trainers as members, for example, the Berufsverband Deutscher Psychologinnen und Psychologen e.V. (BDP), and the European Association für Supervision and Coaching e. V (EASC). Below in table 24 are the relevant associations in Germany and Europe listed.

Table 24: Coaching associations adapted from Rauen (2017)

Association members	Location	Association name	Acronym	Number of members
Coaches	Germany	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Coaching e.V.	DGfC	445
Coaches	Germany	Deutscher Bundesverband Coaching e.V.	DBVC	398
Coaches	Germany	International Coach Federation Germany e.V.	ICF Germany	356
Coaches	Germany	Deutscher Coaching Verband e.V.	DCV	118
Coaches	Germany	Qualitätsring Coaching und Beratung e.V.	QRC	116
Coaches	Germany	Gesellschaft für neurolinguistisches Coaching e.V.	NLC	76
Coaches	Germany	Verband Ganzheitliches Führungs- und Persönlichkeits-Coaching		35
Coaches	Germany	Verband für Qualität im Coaching e.V.	QC	27
Coaches	Germany	Deutsche Coaching Gesellschaft e.V.	DCG	25
Coaches	Germany	Deutscher NLP Coaching Verband e.V.		25
Coaches	Europe	Coaching Experts Europe e.V.	CEE	17
Coaches and others	Germany	Berufsverband Deutscher Psychologinnen und Psychologen e.V.	BDP	11,500

Coaches and others	Germany	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Systemische Therapie, Beratung und Familientherapie e.V.	DGSF	6,000
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Supervision und Coaching e.V.	DGSv	4,000
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutscher Verband für Neuro-Linguistisches Programmieren e.V.	DVNLP	1,900
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutscher Verband für Coaching und Training e.V.	DVCT	1,400
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutscher Verband für systemische Forschung, Therapie, Supervision und Beratung e.V.	SG	1,300
Coaches and others	Germany	Berufsverband für Trainer, Berater und Coaches e.V.	BDVT	651
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutscher Coaching- und Mediations-Verband e.V.	DCMV	55
Coaches and others	Germany	Berufsverband Training Organisationsberatung Coaching e.V.	T.O.C	37
Coaches and others	Germany	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Karriereberatung e.V.	DGfK	34
Coaches and others	Europe	European Mentoring and coaching Council	EMCC	> 700 (25 in Germany)
Coaches and others	Europe	European Association for Supervision and Coaching e.V.	EASC	420
Coaches and others	Europe	International Association for Consulting Competence e.V.	IACC	106
Coaches and others	Europe	Europäische Föderation für Coaching und Supervision	EFCS	14

Within this research, certified training and training providers from the three most significant associations in Germany of each association type and -in order to consider a wider geographical perspective- the three most significant associations in Europe are analysed (see shaded rows in the picture above.).

Three factors were examined based on the presented course titles and short descriptions. First, the number of certified training course on coaching. Second, the amount of training offered in specific organisational areas where resistance is expected to be significant. Such organisational areas are organisational development, change management, leadership development, career management, and conflict management. For example, there are a few programmes executed by accredited institutions with a focus on organisational change management, including a programme named “Change-Coaching” (ISCO, 2017). Third, training where resistance is explicitly mentioned. The result of this analysis is documented in the table 25 below. (To note, training which explicitly mentions resistance is not included in the column on training in relevant areas.)

Table 25: Overview of certified training of coaching associations

Association	Sources	Coaching training (number)	Training in relevant areas (number)	Training with explicit naming of resistance (number)	Comment
DBVC	http://www.dbvc.de/unsere-mitglieder/coaching-weiterbildungsanbieter.html	101	44	9	
BDP	http://www.psychologenakademie.de/fortbildung-weiterbildung/fachbereiche/coaching/coach_seminare/	20	13	4	
DGSv	https://www.dgsv.de/beraterin-werden/weiterbildung/?Aktion=0&Typ=3&Sort=3&Seite=1&Suchergebnis=1	25	15	1	
EASC	https://www.easc-online.eu/ausbildung/ausbildungsinstitute/liste-unserer-institute/	20	9	1	

ICF Germany	https://www.coachfederation.de/events/fortbildungen.html	17	0	0	Training titles but no further information available
DGSF	https://www.dgsf.org/service/weiterbildungsdatenbank/suche	15	7	0	
IACC	http://www.iacc-ev.eu/aktuelle-veranstaltungen/	8	1	0	
DGfC	https://www.coaching-dgfc.de/cgi-bin/portal/portal.pl?level=root&pmenu_id=32&event=32	6	0	0	
EMCC	http://www.emccouncil.org/de/de/	0	0	0	No accreditation of training or training provider

Overall, the analysed associations offer 212 certified training courses in the field of coaching. Of these, 42% are considered as relevant for organisational areas where resistance could occur. In total, 15 training courses include content related to resistance in their course description via several contexts. These contexts are: handling resistance in change processes, identification of different types of resistance, understanding the psychodynamic of challenging customers regarding resistance, and understanding how resistance arises. However, these courses comprise only 7% of all coaching training, and 17% in relation to training in relevant organisational areas. Of particular interest is that there is no training offered at all where resistance is mentioned directly in the course title.

The leading professional coaching associations within the German-speaking countries, having more than 370 certified coaches, is the DBVC. It was founded in Germany 2004 and

has nearly 400 members. In contrast to other associations like the ICF coaching institutions, The DBVC does not certify specific programmes but rather the programme providers (DBVC, 2017). This accreditation at programme level might be the reason why the DBVC has the most extensive certified training program on the German and European market.

Of note is that there are globally significant working coaching organisations investing significant effort in establishing standards for coaching, both in terms of its competencies and its educational processes. The largest coaching organisation is the ICF, which was founded in the US in 1995 and has around 25,000 members in 135 countries (ICF, 2017a). ICF accredited training programmes, and certifications within the business environment accredited by the ICF, represent a wide range of training providers and content; including both initial training and ongoing education courses. Accredited training suppliers comprise private institutions as well as universities, academies, and companies with several different legal statuses. Programme approaches are either very high level, including mainly soft skill training, or they focus on specific coaching approaches. Some examples of accredited programmes names are “Advanced Coaching Training”, “Business Coaching Diploma”, “Coaching Tools and Trainings”, “NLP practitioner certification” or “Master Class in Executive Coaching” (ICF, 2017b). Considering the programme names and their descriptive short introductions only, very few of these programmes focus specifically on an organisational change context.

Besides the possibilities of training, courses, and competencies, more recently, the attention of the literature has focused on supervision as one additional option for continuous coach education (Lippmann, 2015). For example, in her study, Hodge (2016) investigates whether supervision is valuable for executive coaches. Her key finding is that mainly one-to-one supervision, which provides a dialogic reflection, is highly supportive of

the coaching practice as well as the professional development of coaches. Similarly, de Haan (2017) underlines Hodge's finding in his research which involved conducting a large-scale survey that analysed safety and trust between supervisor and supervisee. The supervisees were not exclusively working as executive coaches but also in the context of workplace coaching. The survey result shows that supervisory arrangements are supportive for the professional development of workplace coaches. Therefore, he suggests the inclusion of more supervisory arrangements in coaching education programmes. In addition to the professional implications, supervision also helps coaches' well-being regarding emotional balance and health (Lawrence & Whyte, 2014). Therefore, while there is insufficient research to date, available studies indicate that supervision encourages the coach to be more self-aware, to reflect on their coaching practice, to enhance their professional knowledge, and to develop their own internal supervisor (Joseph, 2016; Passmore & McGoldrick, 2009; Tkach & DiGirolamo, 2017).

Additionally, there are guidelines and frameworks from international and national associations which describe the competencies and capabilities of coaches. One example is the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC). The competency framework developed by the EMCC states that senior practitioners should be able to work efficiently with resistance to change (EMCC, 2015). Another example is the British Psychological Society, who state in their Generic Professional Practice Guidelines that interventions made by coaches during a coaching process *"may involve the use of ... approaches to facilitate change"* (The British Psychological Society, 2008, p. iii). However, while both examples underline that change—and resistance to change—is an element of coaching practice, it is not further described how coaches should work and behave when it comes to change resistance. Furthermore, they do not provide any training or courses to increase the knowledge of coaches.

In addition, some scholarly tools have been developed to identify and assess the competencies of a coach (Linder-Pelz, 2014). One example to validate the effectiveness of such a tool is the study by Grant and Cavanagh (2007), which analyses the validity and reliability of the Goal Focused Coaching Skills Questionnaire. However, both the tools and studies focus on one coaching method in a specific coaching situation, and the tools themselves have weaknesses. For example, the Goal Focused Coaching Skills Questionnaire is mainly based on self-reporting by the coaches themselves rather than on an objective assessment. Hence, the outcome of the tool's results may not be generalisable to determine requirements for coaching qualification skills in the specific area of change resistance.

In summary, the development and training offered in the field of coaching is a growing market. However, there are no current training opportunities being offered, either within Germany or across Europe, which specifically address resistance. Training is available that mainly focuses on other topics such as change management, which is assumed to cover some aspects of resistance—around 40%. The 40% is, of course, highly dependent on the assumption that some organisational areas are linked to resistance. Even though these development and training opportunities do not specifically address resistance, within the frameworks of international associations the topic of resistance handling is included as one competence a coach should have. However, the assessment of competence seems to be vaguely based on existing tools such as the Goal Focused Coaching Skills Questionnaire.

Appendix I: Guiding principles and methods for coaches to be considered in resistance training

Guiding principles for coaches	against themselves	<p>Be self-reflective, because the better the coach understands itself, the better the coach can understand the coachee.</p> <p>Remain in a stable and professional state regardless of what the coachee does.</p> <p>See resistance as valuable feedback and an opportunity to clarify and fathom things.</p> <p>Keep calm if resistance occurs.</p>	Methods	<p>Exercises and case studies based on trial and error: Ignore the resistance of the coachee or confront the coachee with the observed resistance</p> <p>Four phases of change</p>
	against the coachees	<p>Build up trust to establish a good working relationship.</p> <p>The coachee is important.</p> <p>Ignorance of resistance leads to more resistance.</p> <p>Identify the reason behind the resistance.</p> <p>Recognise and interpret the body as a feedback instrument by the coachee and use your own body in the same way.</p>		<p>Concept using “Yes, but” sentences as part of the “drama triangle”</p> <p>Seven phases of the change process with an emphasis on the “valley of tears”</p> <p>The overall approach to “recognise – understand – change” the resistance</p>